

VOLUME 40 • NUMBER 223

November, 1956

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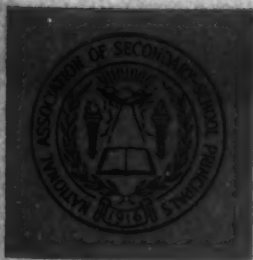
Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

NOV 8 1956

Developments in
the Secondary School
Program



SERVICE ORGAN FOR AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
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1956-57

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Issued Nine Times a Year

\$8.00 a Year

\$1.50, Postpaid

Monthly, September to May Inclusive

Published at Washington, D. C., by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association,
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

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The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF Secondary-School Principals

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Proposed Revision of the Constitution	III
What Makes a Good Principal	Hulda Grobman and V. A. Hines..... 5
A High School Principal Comes Back	E. A. Willard..... 17
Attitudes of High School Assistant Principals Toward Their Duties and Responsibilities	H. F. Bolden..... 20
Fraternities and Sororities Can Be Licked!	R. F. Stauffer..... 26
The Reserve Forces Act of 1955 and Its Meaning to High School Boys	R. F. Michalak..... 29
Policies for Activity Programs and Accounting Procedures	B. H. Voges..... 33
The Developmental Reading Laboratory— A Training and Proving Ground for Readers	Richard Blough..... 38
Reading Can Be Improved	W. E. Campbell..... 42
The Navy's Reading Program	S. S. Leon..... 49
Understanding Relativity at Different Levels of Personal Maturity	H. H. Punke..... 52
Toward Better International Understanding	B. G. Woods..... 60
A Unit Aid Plan	Kenneth Henderson..... 66
In Memoriam	67
Attitudes Toward Work—An Educational and Guidance Problem	Mrs. Jessie Greenbaum and H. C. Hendrickson..... 68
Home-Room and Group Guidance	Ivan Butterworth..... 78
The Dress-Right Program in the Buffalo Public Schools	Joseph Manch..... 81
An Enriched Program in World History	P. J. Malloy..... 85
Modern Living	M. J. Morrow..... 90
An Instrumental Program in a Junior High School	R. D. Brown and Harlow Berquist..... 96
An Annotated Bibliography of Periodical Literature Pertaining to <i>Evaluative Criteria</i> , 1950 Edition	M. E. Smith and A. C. Hearn..... 100
The Book Column	103
News Notes	141

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Issued Monthly, September to May Inclusive

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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Proposed Revision of the Constitution

THIS proposed revised Constitution was presented to the National Advisory Council on Sunday morning, February 26, 1956, and to the members of the Association present at the annual business meeting, Tuesday afternoon, February 28, 1956, in the Conrad Hilton Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, at the time of our 40th Anniversary Convention. This proposed Constitution will be brought before the Association on Tuesday, February 26, 1957, in Washington, D. C., at the time of the 41st Annual Convention for final action. The italicized portions indicate changes in the present Constitution.

* * * * *

ARTICLE I—Name

The name of this organization shall be the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *a Department* of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—Purposes

The Association shall advance the cause of secondary education by providing information and leadership in such matters as administration and supervision, by encouraging research, by promoting high professional standards, by focusing attention on national educational problems, and shall join with other professional organizations in the solution of problems of education at the national level.

ARTICLE III—Membership

SECTION 1. The membership of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of four classes: active, associate, institutional, and life.

SECTION 2. All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are engaged in (a) *secondary-school administration and/or supervision*; (b) teaching secondary education upon payment of the annual fee of \$8.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 3. Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by the payment of the annual fee of \$5.00 through the state secretary or representative.

SECTION 4. All other persons interested in secondary education shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$8.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 5. Institutional membership shall be open to all secondary schools and libraries and other educational institutions. The annual dues of \$12.00 shall be paid by the educational institution. If institutional membership is obtained through a state secondary-school principals' association, it shall be \$10.00 per year. The principal of a member school shall be credited with a personal participating membership and shall receive all benefits and privileges pertaining thereto. In addition, the school library shall receive a duplicate copy of all proceedings, bulletins, special reports, and a subscription to *STUDENT LIFE*. The school may also designate any staff representative who shall receive delegate privileges at the annual conventions of the Association.

SECTION 6. Any individual eligible to active or associate membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall have life membership upon payment of the life membership fee of \$150.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 7. Only active members holding *full time and active* administrative positions in secondary education in schools or state departments of education shall have the privilege of holding office.

SECTION 8. *The Executive Committee shall have power to pass upon the qualifications of all applicants for membership.*

ARTICLE IV—Officers

SECTION 1. The elective officers of the Association shall be a President, a First Vice President, and a Second Vice President.

SECTION 2. *The President and Vice Presidents shall have held office as members of the Executive Committee.*

SECTION 3. The President and Vice Presidents shall hold office for a period of one year, or until a successor has been duly elected and properly qualified, and shall not be eligible for re-election to the same office.

SECTION 4. The Executive Committee shall consist of the officers and four other members each elected for a term of four years. *This Committee shall be composed of qualified active members elected from each of the following seven regions:*

REGION 1—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island;

REGION 2—New York, New York City, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Pennsylvania;

REGION 3—Kentucky, Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas;

REGION 4—Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wyoming;

REGION 5—West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska;

REGION 6—Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado;

REGION 7—Montana, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, California, Utah, Nevada and Hawaii.

In the event of a vacancy in the membership of the Executive Committee or in the offices of the Association such vacancy or vacancies shall be filled at the next annual election according to the regular election procedure, with priority given the senior members of the Executive Committee. All officers or members of the Executive Committee who were elected to office after the person vacating office was first elected, shall move ahead one year for each vacancy. The newly elected member shall have a term of three years and shall take precedence over the member normally elected to a four-year term. If more than one vacancy occurs in any one year, the same procedure shall apply.

SECTION 5. *An officer or member of the Executive Committee shall remain eligible according to Article III, Section 7, and reside in the region he was elected to represent to continue in office beyond the current year.*

SECTION 6. *The Executive Secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee; his duties and compensation shall be determined by the Executive Committee. The Assistant Secretaries shall be elected by the Executive Committee upon recommendation by the Executive Secretary; their duties and compensation shall be determined by the Executive Committee.*

SECTION 7. *The Executive Committee shall: (a) assist the President in arranging for an annual convention and in other matters where his decision will affect the policy and welfare of the Association; (b) appoint such commissions, committees, and consultants to carry on the business of the Association and shall define their duties and determine length of office of such appointment; (c) shall review and evaluate the work of the various committees and keep the Association informed of such reviews and evaluations; (d) prepare an annual budget and render a report to the Association; (e) interpret the provisions of the Constitution in case of doubt relative to its provisions; (f) shall review from time to time the provisions of the Constitution and appoint committees when deemed necessary to recommend changes; (g) shall perform, subject to review by the National Advisory Council and approval by the National Association, such other duties as may be necessary for the efficient functioning and administration of the Association.*

SECTION 8. *Each state association shall elect or select a State Coordinator who shall represent both the state association and the national organization. When state associations do not provide such an officer, the Executive Committee of the National Association shall appoint a State Coordinator. At the time of the selection of the Coordinator, the state association shall appoint an alternate State Coordinator to serve in the*

absence of the Coordinator. The names of the Coordinator and his alternate shall be submitted to the Executive Secretary of the National Association at least sixty days prior to the national convention. Each State Coordinator shall: (a) encourage membership in both State and National Associations; (b) interpret and explain the work and various projects of the National Association to his state association; (c) encourage individual participation in the professional work of the State and National Associations; (d) recommend key people in his area for committee assignment by the Executive Committee; and (e) keep the Executive Committee informed concerning problems and projects of his State Association.

ARTICLE V—National Advisory Council

SECTION 1. *There shall be a National Advisory Council whose membership shall consist of the following: (a) the three officers, namely the President, Secretary, and State Coordinator, from each affiliated State Association; (b) all members of the Executive Committee; and (c) all active past Presidents of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals currently in positions of secondary-school administration.*

SECTION 2. *The National Advisory Council shall meet annually at the time of the annual meeting of the National Association. Such meeting shall be for one or two sessions for the purpose of (a) receiving reports from the Executive Committee, and (b) discussion of problems and concerns of state associations and the National Association.*

SECTION 3. *The President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall be the presiding officer of the National Advisory Council. The Executive Secretary shall act as Secretary of the National Advisory Council.*

SECTION 4. *The National Advisory Council shall: (a) advise the Executive Committee concerning activities, projects, and proposals for the National Association; (b) stimulate the study of problems and issues in secondary education; (c) suggest, coordinate, and report activities and experiments of the state associations; (d) serve as a discussion group for problems affecting the National and State Associations; and (e) consider ways and means of unifying and co-ordinating efforts and work of the leading forces in secondary education.*

ARTICLE VI—Nominations and Elections

SECTION 1. *The State Coordinators shall constitute a Board of Nominators for the elective officers of the Association. If a nomination is made by a state, the Coordinator shall send to the Executive Secretary of the Association, not less than sixty days in advance of the annual meeting, the name of such nomination for any elective office. Nominations shall not be made after that date. The Coordinators shall obtain the endorsement*

of the state association for the name submitted. The Coordinator shall send a supporting statement and endorsement for each of his nominations in accordance with the qualifications as listed in *Article VI, Section 3*. The *Executive Secretary* shall then compile a list of such nominations with their qualifications as set forth on a prescribed form and, together with a list of offices to be filled, shall submit the same to each State Coordinator within a thirty-day period prior to the national convention, at which time the election is to take place.

SECTION 2. The State Coordinators shall meet as a Board of Nominators at a regularly scheduled meeting at the time of the annual convention. An official report of the nominations with supporting statements and endorsements shall be presented by the chairman of the Board of Nominators, who shall previously have been appointed by the President from the present or past membership of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 3. The Board of Nominators in making their final selection shall consider the tabulated returns in relation to: (a) service which the nominee has given his state principals' association and particularly the National Association; (b) qualities and accomplishments which point to successful national leadership; (c) consideration to the standing of the school represented by the nominee; (d) consideration to the frequency of representation from each of the various geographic regions; (e) consideration for seniority in following sequence of office in respect to nominees; and (f) freedom to propose other nominations under justifiable expedient.

SECTION 4. Eighteen Coordinators shall constitute a quorum for the Board of Nominators. In the event of a lack of a quorum, then the vacancies on the Board of Nominators shall be filled by temporary appointments made by the Executive Committee or the President.

SECTION 5. The Chairman of the Board of Nominators shall submit the final list of candidates as prepared by the Board to the members of the Association at the annual business meeting. A written statement in support of each nominee shall be read by the chairman to the members assembled, if requested, and other nominations called for in accordance with parliamentary procedure provided the name of any other person nominated by a State Coordinator is from the list submitted sixty days in advance of the meeting.

SECTION 6. The officers and members of the Executive Committee shall be elected by the Association at the annual business meeting.

ARTICLE VII—Finance

The President shall appoint annually, subject to the approval of the Executive Committee, two members who shall, with the Executive Secretary, constitute a Board of Finance to act in the capacity of trustees, to have custody of the funds of the Association, to have same properly audited, and to submit annually a report to the Association.

ARTICLE VIII—Meetings

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall hold an annual convention. The regular annual business meeting shall be held at the time and place of the annual convention, unless arranged for otherwise by the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

ARTICLE IX—Amendments

The Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds majority vote of *members* present and voting at the annual meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Association thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Association.

ARTICLE X—Rules of Order

Roberts' Rules of Order shall govern in all meetings of the Association.

What Makes a Good Principal?

HULDA GROBMAN
and VYNCE A. HINES

FOUR years ago, the University of Florida College of Education was given a grant by the Kellogg Foundation to study leadership in terms of the public school principalship, to determine how principals work within their schools, what influence on the school community such activities have, and how we can develop or find better principals.

As a first step in the research job, an instrument, the *Principal Behavior Check List*, was developed to describe what principals actually do on the job. This *Check List* consists of eighty-six situations common to the principalship, wherever it exists. Typical of the situations included are: the irate parent complaining about a promotion problem, a teacher bringing a student discipline problem to the principal for action, employing new teacher personnel, the teacher who cannot manage the discipline in her class and does not seek help. Each of the eighty-six situations can be handled in many different ways by the principal. In practice, from five to fifteen action possibilities are used by principals in meeting these situations. On the basis of this *Check List*, descriptions were obtained of how eighty principals, most of them in a metropolitan county school system, operate in existing school situations.¹ The research staff then faced the problem of finding out what such behavior patterns of principals mean. Aside from a simple frequency count of behaviors found, do any patterns of behavior emerge in the study of principal behavior?

Descriptions of principal behavior were examined to try to find a set of behavior patterns emerging in terms of principal personality, educational level, size of school. But no such relationship emerged. Principals cannot be easily categorized and labeled, inconvenient as this may be to a would-be cataloguer. There are aggressive and nonaggressive principals, extrovert and introvert principals, well-trained and poorly trained prin-

¹Most of the work was done in a single large metropolitan county in Florida. This county has great contrasts of rural-urban, industrial-agricultural-tourist, wealthy-poor, native born-foreign situations. Additional less extensive studies in a half dozen other Florida counties indicate that the principals considered in the major study are typical of principals elsewhere in Florida. It seems reasonable to generalize these findings to the principalship elsewhere in the country, since Florida's principals are recruited from educational systems and universities throughout the eastern half of the United States.

Hulda Grobman is Editorial Assistant and Vynce A. Hines is Co-ordinator of the Leadership Project being conducted by the College of Education of the University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida.

cipals, experienced and less-experienced principals, at all levels of schools, in rural and in urban schools, in consolidated and nonconsolidated schools. But there are no benchmarks related to these factors that will sort principals out in terms of what they do on the job.

One method in sorting out principals that was successful, was on the basis of frequency of use of democratic practice. The alternative answers to the *Check List* situations were scaled by a College of Education jury along a 5-point democratic-nondemocratic continuum.

Balance Between				
Democratic Behavior	Mostly Democratic Behavior	Democratic and Undemocratic Behavior	Mostly Undemocratic Behavior	Undemocratic Behavior

Criteria for points along this continuum are:

1. *Democratic behavior*

- a. Action involving the group in decision making with respect to policy and program.
- b. Implementation in line with democratically determined policy.
- c. Action promoting group or individual creativity, productivity, and satisfaction without harm to other groups or individuals.
- d. Behavior or attitude respecting the dignity of individuals or groups.
- e. Action that indicates that the principal seeks to become an accepted member of the group.
- f. Action that indicates that the principal seeks to keep channels of communication open.

2. *Mostly democratic behavior*

That type of action or conduct that contains elements of both democratic and undemocratic behavior, but is predominantly democratic.

3. *Balance between democratic and undemocratic behavior*

The type of action or conduct that seems to contain an equal amount of democratic and undemocratic behavior.

4. *Mostly undemocratic behavior*

That type of action or conduct that contains elements of both undemocratic and democratic behavior, but is predominantly undemocratic.

5. *Undemocratic behavior*

- a. Action that indicates that decision making is centered in the status leader or his inner circle.
- b. Implementation that ignores democratically determined policy.
- c. Action that frustrates group or individual creativity, productivity, and satisfaction.
- d. Action that indicates that the principal obtains objectives by pressures that jeopardize a person's security.
- e. Action that indicates that the principal considers himself above or apart from the group.
- f. Action that indicates that the principal discourages or blocks free communication.

Nonclassifiable behavior

Those responses that cannot be classified in this continuum.

This continuum takes cognizance of the fact that over a period of time any individual's behavior is not completely democratic or completely authoritarian. There are elements of both in most activities. But both may not be present equally. A given behavior may be largely democratic in terms of sharing decision making and respecting dignity of the individual, but have some status-elements—as when the principal always presides in faculty meetings, even when he does it in a democratic manner. And the same is true of conduct that is largely authoritarian in terms of restricting decision making to a few individuals—there may still be some vestiges of democratic behavior in the process. Using this continuum to score individual phases of principal's action, principals can be classified as operating either relatively democratically and using few authoritarian techniques, or as operating through relatively authoritarian patterns of behavior and using democratic behaviors less frequently.

Interestingly enough, although various laboratory experiments in leadership identify *laissez faire* leadership behavior, in this situation few of the actual nondemocratic responses were *laissez faire*, but instead tended toward the authoritarian. There were such possible *laissez faire* responses included in the reply sheet as: "Little or nothing" in reply to a question "What do you do to get teachers to join professional organizations?" or in other situations, "tell teachers that decisions belong to the central office," "allow teachers to decide for themselves," "let group go its own way with no influence," "complete hands off policy." However, this study did not find any leaders who operated predominantly in this manner. In fact, none of the eighty principals studied used *laissez faire* behavior more than five per cent of the time! This may simply mean that a person with a consistent or even frequent *laissez faire* operational pattern does not get appointed to principalships, or it may mean that, if appointed, he does not last in the job. (All principals in the Florida study had been on the job at least two years.)

Of the principals tested, the average principal scored slightly above the mid-point on the democratic continuum; that is, in the test situations he used democratic behavior more than half the time. And, of the group tested, the lowest scoring principals still used democratic practices a considerable proportion—about forty per cent—of the time. Apparently, in the modern American school system, in even the most status dominated schools, there is still a considerable degree of democratic action on the part of the principal.

Under the presently prevailing philosophies of educational administration, the word "nondemocratic" whether implying *laissez faire* or autocratic behavior, carries with it somewhat unfavorable connotations. This impression is borne out when what are judged *laissez faire* and autocratic practices are compared with what is considered "best practice" in an independent evaluation.

Each of the eighty-six questions of the *Check List* was examined by a new jury of ten professors with administrative experience to determine

which of the options they would consider the best or the most effective practice in an actual school situation. Using their choices of best practice, principals were categorized in terms of the extent to which they used best practices. Use of democratic practice and best practice by principals correlated highly.

Another classification possibility in examining principal behavior was whether decisions are automatic or made in terms of the unique circumstances in each instance; in other words, is the action situational or non-situational? Many people feel that no situation is ever repeated exactly, and that there can be no one, always best, answer for any given situation. They insist that each situation must be examined to determine what in it is unique, and what is not unique. The decision must be made in view of these unique factors as well as the elements common to other situations too. According to this point of view, virtually all responses should be situational, oriented in terms of the existing circumstances in a given situation. Similarly based on this theory, people can be categorized in terms of whether or not they act in terms of situationality most of the time.

Using this categorization of behavior, another look was taken at the behavior of the principals tested. Some of them did use the situational approach relatively more frequently than others. Also, there was some correlation between use of situational practices and frequency of use of either democratic or best practices.

Thus far, we know fairly accurately what principals do, but not why they do these things. We can't predict how a given principal will act. This is important or not important depending on whether it matters to anyone what a principal does. So we now turn to the question of whether it matters what he does: what, if any, are the varying results of the different types of principal behavior.

EFFECTS OF PRINCIPAL BEHAVIOR

Principals do differ in the way they work with pupils, teachers, and parents, in terms of more democratic and less democratic, more authoritarian and less authoritarian behavior. Though we can separate and scale the relatively democratic and the relatively authoritarian principals within our one county, we cannot say which would be democratic or authoritarian on a national, regional, or even state-wide performance norm. In other words, since all people use authoritarian and democratic behavior at one time or another, as yet we do not know with any degree of accuracy what delimits the activities of a principal who can be called "democratic."

Nonetheless it is still possible to observe the consequences and concomitant effects of the varying degrees of democratic and less democratic behavior on teachers, pupils, and parents, with a fair degree of assurance that similar results would follow like behavior elsewhere.

Instead of accepting the popular myths that pupils don't learn in a "free" school atmosphere, that in "modern schools" discipline breaks

down, that no one will know where he stands unless the principal is boss and acts that way, it was assumed that the effects of the principal's democratic or nondemocratic action patterns on the community, the parents, the teachers, the pupils, and the school is measurable and potentially important in the over-all educational situation. Therefore, a careful look was taken at the entire school community. Schools, teachers, students, parents, and community were studied to find out whether the differences in principal behavior were reflected in the school or in the community. Instruments measuring pupil achievement, teacher morale, pupil morale, parent-school interaction, and community-school interaction as well as program change within the school were developed and then used to describe the situation for each of these factors within each school. Then these results were compared in terms of the way the principal did his job.

We found no difference in sixth- or ninth-grade pupil achievement in arithmetic, reading, and language in schools with the more democratic principals and in those with more authoritarian principals, when factors of sex, economic status of parents, intelligence, and time in the same school are equalized. It would, therefore, appear that the method of operation of the principal does not markedly influence specific subject matter achievement.

However, the principal's operational pattern clearly influences the reaction of the pupils to the school. Holding parental occupational level constant, *pupil attitudes favor the relatively democratically administered school.* In pupil reaction, the attitude most influenced by the principal behavior pattern is attitude toward principal; least affected are attitudes toward self.

The parents, too, react differently to different principal behavior patterns. *The more favorable parental responses and higher degree of parental participation are secured by the relatively democratic principals, except among parents with incomes under \$2,000 and grade school education.*

With thoughtful analysis of the various sociological factors influencing this low-income, low-education group, such a reaction might have been anticipated. The group includes many foreign-born or first generation Americans, who are accustomed to autocratic family, school, and societal patterns; it also includes members of minority groups who have been confronted all their lives with status-dominated relationships in their non-family contacts. To them, democratic behavior on the part of a status figure is strange and unfamiliar, and, therefore, suspect.

It would seem wise to a principal imbued with democratic operating behavior, who finds himself in an area of lower middle class or low economic levels, or with a high ratio of foreign-born or minority groups, or groups with low educational background, to go slow in making innovations in his pattern of professional operation. The democratic pattern should remain his ultimate goal. But approaching it will take time, patience, and community orientation. On the other hand, principals

in more favored areas might well re-examine their daily operations in the light of these findings, and try to modify any existing authoritarian tendencies on their part, so as to improve school-community relationships.

Although there is a very definite relationship between the administrative behavior of the principal and the reaction of the school patrons and the pupils to the principal and the school as a whole, this factor does not seem to influence teacher-community relationships or school-community relationships, except in specific cases where lay advisory committees are used. Evidently teacher activity in the community and participation in and acceptance by the community operate independently of the factor of principal operational patterns. This situation would probably hold true for other large metropolitan counties where many teachers do not live in the attendance area of the school, where attendance areas differ at different school levels, and where the community life is not centered around the school. But in rural areas; or areas with only small cities or towns, the relationships of the teachers to the community and the community to the school might be affected to some degree by the principal's operational patterns.

Other areas of the teacher's professional activities are directly affected by the principal's behavior pattern. For example, *teacher satisfaction with the human relations on the present job is higher in schools with relatively democratic principals than in schools with relatively authoritarian principals. Teachers tend to use what experts consider good or desirable practices somewhat more often in schools with democratic principals than in schools with authoritarian principals.*

In the areas of program change, *the more democratic principals secure wider participation among those involved, and use a wider variety of procedures to produce change.* (Since one criterion of democratic behavior is the extent to which others are involved in decision making, this may be simply a matter of definition of democratic behavior.) *Teachers in elementary schools with democratic principals have significantly more favorable attitudes toward curriculum change than teachers in elementary schools with authoritarian principals.* There is no significant difference between junior and senior high schools on this basis. This lack of relationship at the junior and senior high levels may reflect the different type of principal-teacher relationship, the departmentalization at the higher educational level, and the more rigid educational requirements to be met in terms of state specifications and university entrance examinations.

Observational records of schools tended to bear out these various hypotheses. Let's look at some of the observer's notes on Richard Roe school—which has a relatively authoritarian principal:

The school gives the impression of a situation that is directed and controlled. There is some evidence of an undercurrent of resentment of the controls by both the teachers and pupils. Lesson recitation is the teaching technique in several classrooms. Teachers are more directive, more disciplinarian with children here than in the other schools . . .

Children appear to be less in sympathy with the views and attitudes of their teachers than in the other schools. There is less evidence here of teacher-pupil rapport. A stereotyped curriculum and school experiences of the child tend to make the school and the teacher values less meaningful for children in these schools . . .

. . . teachers are reserved in their dealings with one another. There are few friendships and little evidence of interaction or of desire for interaction. Morale is low—some of the teachers appeared sullen, rebellious, under the regime. Teachers voiced the complaint that the community was too narrow-minded and that there was little opportunity for social activities for teachers . . .

Faculty meetings are called by the principal whenever he feels a need for them. They usually consist of the principal making announcements to the group . . .

There are six permanent committees, but they exert no influence in policy or administration. Committees or faculty members could make suggestions to the principal, but he retained the right to veto in all cases. He said that he was in a better position to know what was best for the teachers and the school than the teachers were. This may account in part for the fact that few suggestions ever came from the faculty . . .

Despite such confirming narrative data as these, in dealing with our general conclusions on the equal or more favorable results obtained by the relatively more democratic principals, it is important to keep in mind the fact that statistical analyses deal with averages; individual behavior may deviate considerably from the norm or general trend. For example, take the case of Mrs. A., one of the unique principals in this study. The school is a large part of Mrs. A's life. She loves *her* school, and treats the children, parents, staff, and faculties just as though the school were, in fact, hers. There is no doubt that, in this school, it is the principal who calls the tune. But this authoritative handling of policy does not lessen the deep affection of the teachers, the parents, and the pupils for the school and for Mrs. A herself.

In this school, 100 per cent of the parent questionnaires distributed by researchers were returned. This was only what Mrs. A expected. "When we send something home to be answered, we expect it to be returned when we want it."

On visiting day, almost all parents appear, observe classes and have lunch in the school cafeteria.

Pupils in the school are friendly and thoughtful. When one researcher admired some Christmas decorations, the pupils decided to make some for him to take home for his own children.

Mrs. A's feeling for the pupils is genuine and sincere. When three parents in the 500 member school reported on one instrument that they didn't know the principal, she was deeply hurt and bewildered as to how that could have happened. She is close to her pupils. In the halls, girls and boys often run over to her and hug her, or tell her fondly how lovely she looks.

Based on the summary research findings, these intra-school relationships would not have been predicted. On the other hand, there are relatively

democratic schools that are atypical too. In Mr. R's very permissive school situation, teachers are not quite happy. For one thing, they feel that he is so concerned with public relations and community participation in school planning that he has no time left for the teachers or pupils. Again they feel that his democratic attitudes towards decision making do not give teachers sufficient direction, that he may actually be using these techniques to avoid a decision or to shift responsibility rather than through honest desire to involve all the people affected by the decision.

This study did not examine the specific education qualifications (other than certification rank) and details of school experience of the principals involved and the other intangibles mentioned in reference to these two principals. However, one of the items on principal behavior that comes up constantly in observational reports and open-ended questionnaires has to do with consistency of principal behavior. Time after time, teachers comment on their satisfaction with "knowing what to expect" from the principal, with the principal's fairness, and with the freedom to talk things over with the principal. Also the exact converse is frequently criticized—that is, the principal's inconsistency, "never know where you stand with him," the principal's apparent unfairness.

These ideas often but not always tie in directly with the question of whether the principal is democratic or authoritarian, since the making of decisions is less status-centered and more open in a democratic principal situation. Nonetheless, it is true that there are some instances where teachers feel that the principal uses so-called democratic procedures as an excuse for inconsistency, to avoid making decisions or to hide behind, to push off responsibility, and to leave teachers uncertain. In such cases, teachers apparently prefer an authoritarian individual who seems to them fair, consistent, and knowledgeable to a democratic individual who appears to be inconsistent or to avoid decision making.

We do know that, generally speaking, being democratic seems to produce good results. But simply being democratic is not enough. It is also important to have competence and knowledge, to have empathy with teachers, pupils, and parents and to operate on the basis of such knowledge. But exactly how these factors influence the findings of our study remains for further research.

WHO MAKES A GOOD PRINCIPAL

In studying principals, *democratic behavior and best practices correlated highly*. But there was no way of predicting who would be democratic, or use "best" administrative practices.

The principals studied range in qualifications from Florida Rank 1 to Rank 3. (Rank 3 is based on graduation from an accredited college. Rank 2 is based on holding a master's degree or other degree requiring a full year of graduate work plus some experience. Rank 1 involves at least 36 hours of graduate work beyond Rank 2, plus three years of successful experience as a teacher, supervisor, or administrator.) Princi-

pals varied considerably in terms of time within the county, educational subject matter background, professional experience. Yet none of these factors seemed to act as determiners of whether their day-to-day activities would be democratic or best.

Personality Traits.—It has been widely assumed that a person who is basically democratic in personality will show such traits in his work; that a person who has an authoritarian personality will become an authoritarian leader. Personality tests have been widely used in personnel work in the belief that an individual's general traits will carry over with him into any job he is assigned to do. Many of the batteries of tests used to screen new employees in industry and to select those who are potential leadership material are chosen with this assumption in mind. And it does seem entirely reasonable to assume that a person will act consistently in terms of his inner personality make-up.

In line with this hypothesis, principals were rated on two widely accepted standard personality tests, and the results were compared with their on-the-job activities to determine just what influence their personality had upon daily behavioral patterns.

The personality scales used were the *F Scale* and the *Guilford-Martin Factors GAMIN*. The *F Scale*, described in Adorno's *The Authoritarian Personality*, was designed to measure an individual's authoritarian tendencies. Items attempt to get at such variables as conventionalism, authoritarianism, superstition, power, cynicism, and projectivity. A high, positive score can be interpreted as representing authoritarian or anti-democratic characteristics in the "inner" structure of personality. A low, negative score would indicate the opposite or absence of these tendencies. The five factors tested in the *Guilford-Martin Factors GAMIN* include:

- G —general pressure for overt activity
- A —ascendancy in social situations, as opposed to submissiveness; leadership qualities
- M —masculinity of attitudes and interests as opposed to femininity
- I —lack of inferiority feeling; self-confidence
- N —lack of nervous tenseness and irritability

As far as this study could determine, the assumption that personality determines job behavioral pattern is not valid. *What principals did in a given situation, how they actually behaved on the job, showed no correlation with the various personality factors of the GAMIN Scale and the F Scale, which measures traits presumably pertinent to authoritarian or democratic behavior.* A man may be classified by a personality test as having democratic traits and may think of himself as democratically oriented and activated. But when his daily routine jobs are examined, he may turn out to be nondemocratic in operational situations. Or he may deal with some general types of situations democratically and with others very undemocratically. For example, he may work in democratic ways with teachers, but use authoritarian methods with pupils or parents.

Male vs. Female.—To get down to cases, what makes a good principal, and where do we find such skills? Are they the exclusive prerogative of one sex or another? The study team, composed almost entirely of men, reached some surprising conclusions about the relative effectiveness of men *versus* women principals.

Of those principals studied, elementary principals tended to use democratic behavior more frequently than junior or senior high-school principals. This may be simply a sex factor, since we also find that women principals used democratic and best practices more often, and authoritarian practices less often, than men. Since virtually all the women principals studied were in elementary schools, it may be that the elementary situation lends itself more readily to what were considered democratic practices; on the other hand, it may be that sex of principal does exert a considerable influence on the operating pattern of our principals.

On this democratic *versus* authoritarian behavior scale, women principals operated democratically 22 per cent more often than men. In terms of the most effective responses to given administrative practices, women principals again outscored men, this time by 18 per cent. Women principals were found to act situationally more often than men. In terms of the standard personality measures used, no correlation was found between the personality traits and behavior on the job, except that men were found to be more masculine than women, hardly a startling discovery. On other personality factors measured, the sexes did not differ.

Thus far, we have been dealing with educational theory. The layman may say, "So what? How does it relate to what is happening in my school?" To such a layman a more understandable procedure for judging a principal's behavior is to see how the parents, the pupils, and the teachers react to the principal and to the school situation. These aspects of principal effectiveness were also considered. Although some men principals rated high in terms of parental approval of the schools' learning outcomes, activities, and approval of the principal himself, on the whole, schools with women principals tended to outrank those with men. Even on the question of discipline, parents approved of women principals more often than of men. In responding to the question "The discipline in our school is excellent, average, or poor," they did give a man principal the top batting average—.663. But the next nine places went to women principals, with batting averages ranging from .607 to .586. A man took eleventh place, and then women took over again.

In evaluating principals, consideration was also given to student morale, teacher morale, the frequency with which teachers use desirable practices, and how program development takes place. Comparisons have also been made of pupil achievement in arithmetic, reading, and language. The women elementary principals ran ahead of the men by small to moderate margins in each instance except achievement. Here there was a tie. Good teachers seem to make more of a difference than the sex of the principal or how the principal operates. However, as one person remarked

on hearing these results, "Wouldn't you rather have your kid in a school where everybody seems to get along a little better and likes each other a little better, if in the process he is learning just as much subject matter?"

This relationship between sex and use of good or democratic practices, and production of good school, and school-community relations raises some serious questions. There has been a post-war tendency in school administration to the appointment of men, often the athletic coaches, to school principalships in elementary schools as well as high schools. Yet, from an objective point of view, there has been little systematic study of the questions "*What makes a good principal?*" and "*Who makes a better principal, a man or a woman?*" So this school board preference for men rather than women principals seems to indicate that board members think men are, *per se*, better principals, simply because they are men.

Possibly the recent preference for men, as they become available to fill school jobs, is in response to the pressures of school critics who think that school discipline has gone to pot, and that a man, particularly a coach, can keep youth in line better than a weak woman. School boards may feel that men need the higher paying principalships more than women, if they are to stay in the teaching profession. It may be that women teachers, like many women in other areas of work, prefer to work for a man rather than a woman. In some cases, appointment of an unsuccessful coach to a principalship may be a face-saving gesture, a promotion upstairs. It is also true that, because of athletic publicity, the coach is better known around the community than any other teacher, and because of this familiarity with the community power figures as well as with the general public, he is more likely to be promoted when a higher-prestige, higher-salary post opens up.

Whatever the reasons, we do find men in increasing numbers in the school principalships. In Florida, for example, whereas the woman used to be the rule in elementary schools, we now find a considerable proportion of men, and in high schools, the woman principal is now the rare exception. In some Florida counties, more than 60 per cent of all school principals are former coaches.

The results of the Florida Leadership Study do not constitute a blanket endorsement of women as principals. Nor is it a statement that all women are better than all coaches or all, or even most, men. There are many coaches who are excellent principals. Male noncoaches, too, are found at the top as well as the bottom of the scale. But this study may help establish some new guideposts for employing authorities who are looking for effective principals, as well as indicate to principals some aspects of behavioral patterns that can make them more effective in their principalships. Some of the factors deserving more thought are:

1. The current criteria used by employing authorities in selecting principals do not appear to be directly related to success on the job. Sex has been a determining factor in recent years, with men very markedly

preferred, although this preference correlates inversely with success on the job. Teaching experience at the level of school has not been required in the school systems studied, although this appears to be an influential factor in determining acceptance of the principals by teachers.

2. Generally speaking, democratic and situational behaviors obtain better results in the school situation than do the converse types of actions. It is difficult to predict who will be democratic or situational in advance of watching an individual on the job. Personality tests, experience or educational background are not accurate predictors. Possibly the best way to determine pattern of operation in the principalship is to observe the individual's behavior in other supervisory functions.

3. Pupils, teachers, and parents favor a principal who is genuinely interested in the school and in the people in the school.

4. Teachers like the principal who knows what they are doing, who can work with teachers, and who can give them competent help. This does not imply any snooping, but rather a friendly professional concern, interest, and desire to improve on a teaching job already well done. Teachers want a principal they can go to and ask for help, without any implication of personal incompetence. They want and appreciate a relationship of mutual respect between recognizedly competent professionals—the principals and the teachers.

The primary function of the school principal is to make the school a place where pupils can learn most readily. Some principals seem to forget or overlook this, or fail to keep a current check on their operations in terms of this function and of the knowledge they have of how pupils learn. Employing authorities have been equally lax in failing to keep to the fore the really important functions of the schools and of the principalship. Much employing has been done on the basis of hunch or incorrect surmises about what a principal should do or should be, rather than a thoughtful analysis of what basically they want the school to be.

MARK THIS DATE ON YOUR CALENDAR

41st Annual Convention

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

will be held at the

Sheraton-Park and Shoreham Hotels

Washington, D. C.

February 23-27, 1957

A High School Principal Comes Back

EDWIN A. WILLARD

I HAVE come back, after almost seven years away from the field of education, to being a High School Principal once again. And I like it. I have given up a successful career in the government; I have taken a thirty-six hundred dollar cut in salary; I have moved my family from the excitement of life in Washington to the reality and down-to-earth living of a small town near the eastern seaboard; and I have found contentment and the self-satisfaction that was lacking in my other way of life.

I began back in 1936 as a high-school English teacher, advanced to adviser of boys, and then was appointed a high-school principal in a small town near Philadelphia. After three years in this position, I received an appointment in a more dynamic community in Westchester County. It was in the midst of this work, which I found highly challenging and pleasing, that I was approached in 1950 by a friend attached to the U. S. Department of State and was persuaded that my duty and opportunity lay in work with the Foreign Service. Korea was looming, and I argued that this was my patriotic duty and I would give my service to my country.

My first two assignments were glamorous enough. We were sent to two of the outstanding embassies in large European capitals. Even though at times I convinced myself that I was contented, I always felt that tug back to the educational world. I followed my children's school experience abroad with avid interest. I learned much of good from them, but I recognized the weaknesses inherent in the strict academic regime they were following. While searching for personal satisfaction and gratification from work in the embassy, I would suddenly be confronted by a student tourist who would look me up and thank me, as he successfully approached his last years in college, for having directed him toward his college or for having helped him in his search for a career. Other former students, when I would meet them, might reminisce on some slight influence I had brought to bear, an influence I had long forgotten I had ever exerted, if I had ever known at all. Some of my former teachers also would come abroad. I remember one especially. Thrilled with her first sight of Europe, she reminded me that it was I who had originally stimulated her to travel. I found more and more that I longed for that satisfaction of helping an individual find his way.

Edwin A. Willard is Principal of Memorial High School in Millville, New Jersey.

When I returned to Washington in 1953 and entered upon the tension of work there, I felt more and more dissatisfaction with my way of work. The pressures were terrific; the red tape was insurmountable; and there were no compensations such as one might find in education. My wife, too, became unhappy; for she found no real part to play in my work with the government. Every issue was classified; and we were spheres apart.

Again I found myself following my children's progress in school. I learned much as a parent during this experience. I learned much as an individual citizen. And I looked back with a longing to those days when I had been a high-school principal. I missed the professional life and the community life which is thrust, willy-nilly, upon a high-school principal. In Washington, a constantly changing community, there was little or no part a Foreign Service officer, scheduled at any time for rotation overseas, could play.

My wife and I talked at great length; and we decided, both for ourselves and for our children, that we preferred the old life. So we decided to try to go back. It wasn't easy. I was over forty. I was making twelve thousand a year with the government. Superintendents looked puzzled when I applied for a vacancy. They thought I was irresponsible, if not demented. Some even thought, though they never quite expressed themselves vocally, that perhaps I *had* to get out. Even our close friends were startled and not sure we knew our own minds.

The course of my return is too circuitous to relate; but at any event I'm back as the high-school principal in a community of eighteen thousand people, not far from where I started out.

Getting back into the swing wasn't easy. I'd forgotten the "pedagoge," the jargon of the trade. I'd forgotten that I had to be a conformist, that I had to live in a fish bowl for all to view.

I came to my school in July when the fall schedule had already been made. Apart from re-editing the opening-of-school manual, overseeing the summer rehauling, checking incoming supplies, interviewing new students, there wasn't a great deal I had to do. The townspeople were cordial and warm; but I sensed a certain distrust, an incredulosity, on the part of some. (There had been a number of new principals over the past years; and this added to the problem.) So I decided I must set myself a program. I would completely indoctrinate myself within that community, among the high-school faculty, during those unharried days of July and August.

I called every teacher on the telephone and invited him to come and see me. Those whom I couldn't reach by telephone, I wrote. I got to know the manager of the cafeteria, the custodians, the business manager, the other members of the staff. In all of this I was helped by my superintendent. He never said anything; but he sensed my dilemma. Those interviews, over fifty of them, occupied a good deal of my time; but by the end I felt more comfortable (and I think the teachers did too). I

learned some of the weaknesses of the school, some of its strengths; and I was able to save myself untold hours had I waited for September to undergo this get-acquainted process.

But I still wasn't satisfied. I had left the government because I wanted to be an integral part of a community. If I wanted to achieve that early in the game, I thought I'd better get to know the community. So I made an effort to know the key members of the town. I made out a schedule. I met the president of the PTA. I tried to visit every minister. (Some of the clergy couldn't understand my approach, but in every instance, after we had talked an hour, I felt a cordiality which was heart-warming and encouraging.) I called on the chief of police, the editor of the local newspaper, some of the doctors, the YMCA secretary. I met the Mayor and the members of the board of education. I made a point to visit every store in the community. I learned something about the industries that prevailed. I became a member of one of the service clubs. My family and I visited a different church each Sunday. I dropped a card to all the students of the junior class who had taken college boards, inviting them to come and see me. I gave as an excuse that I wanted to tell them something of where they stood. In reality I wanted only to meet them and know them before September. I sought out the president of the senior class, the president of the student council, the captain of the football team. I even contacted one teacher who had left in June for another position. I personally unpacked the supplies and put them away; I straightened up the bookroom and I read the textbooks. I combed the school plant from boiler room to attic.

I read a great deal, mostly my old education course books. Perhaps they are out of date, but the principles seem still to be applicable. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner; Douglass and Boardman; Englehardt; Kyte; and Grizzell and Jones all still have much to offer. I took out my old graduate papers and read them over. I wrote my university and the organizations to which I had belonged, and I told them I had come back and that I wanted to belong again.

Now that school has begun, I feel safer, more tranquil, better equipped to go back to being a high-school principal. This choice to return to education is entirely mine. I've seen the other pastures, and I know they are not so green as they once seemed. I don't regret the experience of the past seven years; it's done a great deal for me. I'm more mature, a good deal more understanding of people, and definitely content with my lot. This time I know what I want: I want to stay in secondary-school work. This time I know that what I want is a way of life, not a job where I can make money. I was a little terrified as the opening of school approached. But I was stimulated to try to do a good job; after two months, I'm still enthusiastic about it. I was a high-school principal once; I'm grateful for the opportunity of being one again.

Attitudes of High School Assistant Principals Toward Their Duties and Responsibilities

HOWARD F. BOLDEN

THE high-school assistant principal is serving in a position which requires him to deal directly with staff personnel, teachers, pupils, and parents. His close relationships with teachers and pupils alike, enable him to be of invaluable assistance to the principal in the administration of the school. On the whole, it is possible for the assistant principal to exert considerable influence over the educational program of the school.

Many and varied are the duties and responsibilities of a high-school assistant principal. The nature of the problems encountered and the level of difficulty of each vary with the school and with the administrator under consideration. In any one school, the duties and responsibilities of a certain type may be more demanding or more serious than others. Time requirements alone are not a complete index of the complexity of a duty or a responsibility. Some relatively simple tasks may be very time consuming. Demands made upon the training, experience, ingenuity, energy, and general resourcefulness of an assistant principal are important considerations. So also is the frequency of problems in a given area.

The attitudes of the assistant principal toward his duties and responsibilities have important implications for the educational program and personnel of his school. The efficiency with which the assistant principal fulfills his obligations and discharges his responsibilities will be largely determined by the professional attitudes with which he views the duties and responsibilities allocated to him.

In order to analyze the pattern of thinking of high-school assistant principals as to the assignment of certain duties and responsibilities to the assistant principal, questionnaires were sent to the high-school assistant principals in cities with populations of 500,000 to 1,000,000 persons. A total of 122, or 78.7 per cent, of the assistant principals participated in the study. These officers represented 90 high schools or 84.9 per cent of the high schools in the eleven cities having assistant principals in the high schools.

Howard F. Bolden is the assistant principal of the Dunbar High School in Washington, D.C. This article is a summary of his unpublished doctoral dissertation entitled, *The Status of the High School Assistant Principal in Selected Cities in the United States*, completed in 1956 at the University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

The officers were asked to indicate whether they agreed, disagreed, or were undecided as to whether or not the duties which they performed should be assigned to the assistant principal. These opinions are summarized in the tables following.

TABLE I—ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS TOWARD THE ALLOCATION OF CERTAIN DUTIES OR RESPONSIBILITIES IN ADMINISTRATION AND SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

Duty or Responsibility	Percentage of Assistant Principals Should this duty be assigned to the assistant principal?		
	Yes	No	Undecided
Administering the school in the absence of the principal	100.0	0.0	0.0
Responsibility for pupil control	98.4	1.6	0.0
Representing the principal at professional meetings	94.3	5.7	0.0
Developing school standards	80.3	14.8	4.9
Administration of co-curricular activities	74.6	24.8	.8
Preparation of the master schedule	74.6	16.3	9.1
Holding fire and civil defense drills	73.0	19.7	7.3
Preparation of administrative bulletins	72.1	23.8	4.1
Recommendations concerning teacher selection	70.5	22.1	7.4
Inspection of buildings and grounds	69.7	20.5	9.8
Recommendations concerning teacher promotion, demotion, or transfer	63.9	27.1	9.0
Pupil classification and promotion	61.5	34.4	4.1
Administration of the office staff	61.5	27.9	10.6
Administration of health services	56.6	36.9	6.5
Administration of guidance services	52.5	37.7	9.8
Preparation of school reports to superintendent	47.5	48.4	4.1
Administration of pupil locker service	40.2	54.9	4.9
Administration of cafeteria operation	40.2	51.6	8.2
Administration of the athletic program	39.3	54.9	5.8
Administration of the custodial force	38.5	59.8	1.7
Administration of vocational placement service	35.2	48.4	16.4
Administrative work concerning special subject supervisors	35.2	45.9	18.9
Selection of school equipment	34.4	50.0	15.6
Checking keys, locks, and lockers	32.8	63.6	1.6
Allocation of school building for public use	27.9	60.7	11.4
Administration of the textbook service	24.6	66.4	9.0
Selection of textbooks and supplies	24.6	64.8	10.6
Accounting for supplies and equipment	23.7	67.2	9.1
Administration of pupil insurance program	22.1	64.8	13.1
Making the school budget	22.1	71.3	6.6
Business management of the school	20.5	69.7	9.8
Receipt or disbursement of pupil funds	19.7	74.6	5.7
Administration of driver education program	18.1	59.0	22.9
Treasurer of the school	15.6	80.3	4.1
Issuing supplies and equipment to teachers	11.5	82.8	5.7

TABLE II—ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS TOWARD THE ALLOCATION OF CERTAIN DUTIES OR RESPONSIBILITIES IN SUPERVISION

<i>Duty or Responsibility</i>	<i>Percentage of Assistant Principals Should this duty be assigned to the assistant principal?</i>		
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Undecided</i>
Classroom visitation	79.5	15.6	4.9
Post-visitational conferences with teachers	74.6	15.6	9.8
Rating the teachers after visitation	70.5	22.1	7.4
Developing the school philosophy	69.7	18.0	12.3
Supervision of study halls	59.0	33.6	7.4
Supervision of the guidance program	58.2	25.4	16.4
Conducting teachers meetings	50.8	36.9	12.3
Developing courses of study	47.5	41.8	10.7
Holding meetings of department heads	47.5	36.2	16.3
Organization of curricula (determining and planning courses and content)	46.7	35.2	18.1
Setting up and supervising instructional experiments	46.7	27.1	26.2
Supervision of the testing program	36.2	47.5	16.3
Sponsoring the student council	31.1	55.0	13.9
Supervision of the audio-visual program	21.3	68.0	10.7

TABLE III—ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS TOWARD THE ALLOCATION OF CERTAIN DUTIES OR RESPONSIBILITIES RELATING TO PUPIL WELFARE

<i>Duty or Responsibility</i>	<i>Percentage of Assistant Principals Should this duty be assigned to the assistant principal?</i>		
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Undecided</i>
Parent conferences regarding pupil discipline	97.6	1.6	.8
Adjusting teacher-pupil problems	95.1	3.3	1.6
Parent conferences regarding pupil adjustment	92.6	4.9	2.5
Pupil discipline involving suspension	89.3	9.1	1.6
Pupil attendance	86.9	9.8	3.3
Counseling with pupils	82.0	12.3	5.7
Pupil discipline involving expulsion	77.0	20.6	2.4
Parent conferences regarding the educational guidance of pupils	75.4	18.0	6.6
Adjusting programs of pupils	72.1	22.9	5.0
Supervision of pupil social activities	69.7	18.0	12.3
Parent conferences regarding the health of pupils	68.9	22.1	9.0
Supervision of commencements and/or activities	56.6	30.3	13.1
Supervision of pupils in the cafeteria	53.3	39.3	7.4
Supervision of the detention room	50.8	41.0	8.2
Organizing and conducting pupil assembly programs	49.2	33.4	17.4

TABLE IV—ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS TOWARD THE ALLOCATION OF CERTAIN DUTIES OR RESPONSIBILITIES RELATING TO ROUTINE OFFICE AND CLERICAL WORK

<i>Duty or Responsibility</i>	<i>Percentage of Assistant Principals Should this duty be assigned to the assistant principal?</i>		
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Undecided</i>
Issuing permits to leave the building	91.8	6.6	1.6
Issuing building passes	80.3	17.3	2.4
Effecting the transfer of pupils to other schools	68.1	29.5	2.4
Registering new pupils	67.2	28.7	4.1
Issuing excuses for pupil absence	58.2	37.7	4.1
Checking records for admission	57.4	37.7	4.9
Issuing excuses for pupil tardiness	55.7	38.5	5.8
Routine office and clerical work (records, reports, correspondence, etc.)	39.3	53.3	7.4
Processing requisitions for supplies and equipment	33.6	59.9	6.5
Certifying or issuing transcripts of marks to other schools	26.2	68.0	5.8
Certifying pupils for graduation	24.6	68.9	6.5
Selling tickets to school affairs	9.0	82.8	8.2

TABLE V—ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS TOWARD THE ALLOCATION OF CERTAIN DUTIES OR RESPONSIBILITIES RELATING TO SCHOOL-COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

<i>Duty or Responsibility</i>	<i>Percentage of Assistant Principals Should this duty be assigned to the assistant principal?</i>		
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Undecided</i>
Representing the school at community functions	86.9	9.8	3.3
Membership on the PTA Executive Council	62.3	24.6	13.1
Parent conferences relating to community affairs	61.5	25.4	13.1
Membership on PTA committees	59.0	27.2	13.8
Conferences relating to vocational placement	41.0	52.5	6.5
Direction of the public relations program	41.0	44.3	14.7
Preparation of school publicity	39.4	42.6	18.0

TABLE VI—ATTITUDES OF HIGH SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS TOWARD THE ALLOCATION OF CERTAIN DUTIES OR RESPONSIBILITIES RELATING TO THE SUBSTITUTE TEACHER SERVICE

<i>Duty or Responsibility</i>	<i>Percentage of Assistant Principals</i> <i>Should this duty be assigned to the assistant principal?</i>		
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Undecided</i>
Supervision of substitute teachers	74.6	20.5	4.9
Orientation of substitute teachers	73.0	20.5	6.5
Assignment of substitute teachers	50.8	44.3	4.9
Administration of the substitute teacher service	39.3	53.4	7.3
Daily employment of substitute teachers	18.9	77.8	3.3
Clerical work related to the administration of the substitute teacher service	14.8	78.7	6.5

CONCLUSIONS

1. In the area of administration and school management, the high-school assistant principals feel that duties and responsibilities relating generally to the over-all direction of the school, administration of personnel, and administration of health and guidance services are appropriate for assignment to the assistant principal, whereas those which the officers feel are inappropriate for assignment to the assistant principal are largely managerial in nature.
2. The majority of the assistant principals feel that supervisory duties and responsibilities relating to professional and pupil personnel, instruction, and guidance are the types of supervisory activities most appropriate for allocation to the high-school assistant principal.
3. The majority of the administrators approve for assignment all of the duties and responsibilities relating to pupil welfare except the organizing and conducting of pupil assembly programs, which meets with the approval of almost half of the officers. Although the assistant principals indicate that they strongly believe that they should be responsible for pupil control, pupil discipline, and the adjustment of teacher-pupil problems, they seem not to give strong approval to a type of "police" duty such as the supervision of the detention room. However, since the majority of the assistant principals feel that all except one of the duties and responsibilities relating to pupil welfare are appropriate for assignment to the assistant principal, one may assume that, as a group, they feel that the pupil is the center of the educational enterprise.
4. The assistant principals approve of those clerical duties and responsibilities which contribute directly to the control, attendance, and educational programs of pupils, whereas they do not approve of the

assignment of duties of a purely routine clerical nature which could be adequately performed by clerical personnel.

5. The officers approve for allocation to the assistant principal the majority of the duties and responsibilities relating to school-community activities; however, they do not feel that holding conferences relating to vocational placement are appropriate for assignment to the assistant principal. Although the officers show a marked division of opinion regarding the assignment of duties and responsibilities relating to the public relations program, they seem, in general, to realize the importance of good school-community relations in the furtherance of their school programs.
6. As to the substitute teacher service, the assistant principals approve for assignment those duties and responsibilities which involve the orientation, supervision, and assignment of substitute teachers, but they disapprove for assignment those duties and responsibilities which involve the daily employment of substitute teachers, the administration of the substitute teacher service, and the clerical work relating to the administration of the substitute teacher service. In indicating disapproval of the assignment of responsibility for the daily employment of substitute teachers and the clerical responsibilities incident to the management of the substitute teacher service, the assistant principals are in agreement with the prevailing practice in the cities surveyed of providing for a centralized system for the daily employment of these teachers.

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WATCH FOR FURTHER ANNOUNCEMENTS

Fraternities and Sororities Can Be Licked!

RICHARD F. STAUFFER

ALTHOUGH about half of the states have laws which prohibit high-school fraternities and sororities or give local boards of education the right to do so, these organizations of our youth continue to plague school administrators. In fact, prohibitory laws have not prevented their flourishing "underground" in many communities. Interest in the problem is widened by the inclusion of the topic at nearly every national convention of secondary-school principals as well as those at the state level. The existence of prohibitory laws are a useful weapon, but no administrator can rely upon the courts alone to eradicate this problem.

The school district in which this writer is employed has been successful in combatting these groups despite their continued existence in neighboring districts and despite the fact that the supreme court of this state has the distinction of rendering the only known decision in favor of fraternities and sororities. Perhaps the experiences here can assist another community.

The Horton Watkins High School was organized as a high school four years ago. Prior to the fall of 1952, the school district consisted of six elementary schools. Its high-school youth were sent as tuition students to neighboring high schools in St. Louis County or to private schools. Since the school district is an unusually wealthy one, many of its youth were members of high-school fraternities and sororities in these schools. While the high-school building was being built and faculty were being employed, a committee of parents was appointed by the superintendent's advisory council and worked under the direction of the newly appointed principal to study and make recommendations on fraternities and sororities.

All known literature pertaining to the question was studied and discussed by the committee which met at frequent intervals. The committee's final action was to draw up and publish a report which not only attacked these groups in vigorous fashion, but also recommended specific action to be taken to prevent their establishment in the new high school. These recommendations for action were as follows:

1. That the formation and existence of so-called secret fraternities and sororities in the Horton Watkins High School be discouraged by the board of education for the school district of Ladue, by the parents' organization to be formed among

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the parents of students of Horton Watkins High School, and by the parents themselves as individuals.

2. That the Parents' Council (the superintendent's advisory council) request of the board of education for the school district of Ladue, that the board take such steps as are within its legal powers to discourage the formation and existence of so-called secret fraternities and sororities in the Horton Watkins High School.

3. That, as soon as the parents' association for the new high school is organized, it take upon itself the project of developing co-operatively with the school authorities a full social program for the students of the new high school.

4. That as soon as the principal of the new high school is able to determine the names of probable students to attend the new high school, an organization committee be formed to organize the new parents' association as prior to the opening of the new high school as is practical, with the intention that the new parents' association consider and act upon the recommendations herein made for its activity.

The report with its recommendations was submitted to the Parents' Council, which took formal action of approval. Copies of the report were mailed to all homes with students eligible to attend the new high school.

Under the supervision of the Council, a parents' association for the high school was duly organized, a constitution adopted, and officers elected. The first order of business was to act upon the special report. Following a lengthy discussion of the *pros* and *cons*, three motions were adopted without a dissenting vote to put the recommendations of the committee into practice. These motions were as follows:

1. A motion was made and seconded that the "Committee Report on Fraternities and Sororities in Horton Watkins High School" be adopted by this association. The motion was carried.

2. A motion was made and seconded that "Be it resolved that to implement the unanimous action of the Ladue High School Association in adopting the Committee Report on fraternities and sororities:

a. That the parents of Ladue High School students recognize that they have the moral obligation to refrain from permitting their children to join fraternities and sororities;

b. That the decision of the parents of Ladue High School students be announced to the students of the school with full opportunity given to them to consider this decision after ample study and consultation with parents and faculty;

c. That a moratorium for further pledging be declared effective for a period of sixty days;

d. That as soon as possible an effective and constructive social program be activated in an effort to provide a complete substitute for fraternity and sorority activity." The motion was carried.

3. A motion was made and seconded that students who are now members of fraternities and sororities be courteously asked to refrain from the proselyting of students during this "pledge holiday." The motion was carried.

The next step was submission of the Committee Report and action by the Parents' Council and the High School Association to the board of education. The official minutes of the board state the following: "The matter of high-school fraternities and sororities was discussed at some

length and the action taken by the High School Parents' Association, in this regard, was approved and members of the association commended for their interest and action."

The report and actions of the various bodies were made known to students with ample opportunities for discussion in special groups and in classes. Those who were members of the secret societies were, of course, most outspoken, sometimes defiant. However, these latter were assured that no pressure would be exerted upon their parents to force their resignations from the societies, but, rather, the desire was to stop any additional recruiting from present or future students of this high school.

The school launched into an active social and activity program and gradually parents were reporting that their sons and daughters were "de-pledging." A few incidents of initiation activities within the school were dealt with promptly and with sternness.

A special meeting of ninth-grade parents was called and discussion was again held on the committee report and action by the association and the board of education. The ninth grade was regarded as the crucial one because this is the grade from which the secret societies recruit their new pledges. A motion was made and passed that the ninth-grade parents not only affirm their opposition to the societies, but also that each parent be asked to sign his name to a pledge to "not permit my child to join high-school fraternities and sororities during his (her) high-school career at Horton Watkins High School." Nearly all parents in attendance or by mail signed this pledge. This action proved to be the death knell of the societies as far as students from this school were concerned. The same action was taken with new ninth-grade parents at the beginning of the second year of operation. Only a handful of students today have membership in any high-school fraternity or sorority. In fact, it is now impossible to secure sufficient student interest to discuss the problem. However, parents are advised occasionally of the school district's stand on the question lest newcomers be trapped into an undesirable pitfall.

Yes, fraternities and sororities can be licked! But it takes a little time and effort and, above all, the willingness to take a stand and to not waver regardless of the triviality of the occasion or the incident.

MARK THIS DATE ON YOUR CALENDAR

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The Reserve Forces Act of 1955 and Its Meaning to High School Boys

RAYMOND F. MICHALAK

EDUCATORS are aware that international powers overseas peer over the shoulders of Uncle Sam, constantly appraising his strength and readiness to ward off their sneak attacks. As a nation we must remain strong to preserve our freedom, not only through wealth and industrial potential, but also through an effectively trained armed force which is immediately ready for combat and large enough to cope with the magnitude of modern technical warfare.

A large standing armed force during peacetime would create hardships: the national economy would suffer by increased taxes; industry would be impaired by a shortage of manpower; schools would be denied many of their students; and, family life would be disrupted by the absence of young fathers.

Yet the impending danger of potential international enemies forever constitutes a threat to our way of life. With thermonuclear weapons in their hands, they can force us to defend our country without giving us the option of trading space for time in which to train civilians into soldiers, which has been the history of the country in past wars.

To preclude the need for a large professional army in peacetime and to meet an ever-impending danger, we have the alternative of creating and maintaining an effective, ready trained nucleus of civilians, modern Minute Men—today's Reserve Forces. The manpower of these Reserve Forces is being recruited from volunteers or draftees.

There are several ways provided in public laws by which young men can meet their service obligation. No attempt is made here to discuss all of them. This article concerns itself with salient provisions of the Reserve Forces Act of 1955 as it pertains to the Army Reserve. This provides the young man an opportunity to meet his service obligation with a minimum interruption of his personal life and with least interference in his education. It was signed into law by President Eisenhower on August 9, 1955, and will remain in effect until August 1, 1959. The salient feature of the Act is that it permits a young man between the ages of 17 to 18½ years to enlist in an organized Reserve unit of his own choice, including preference as to branch of the service. He thus becomes deferred from induction. Concomitantly with his enlistment, he volunteers for six months

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Coronet Films, Coronet Film Building, Chicago, Illinois, at a nominal rental fee. The series *Are You Ready for Service?* consist of fourteen 16mm films, each ten-minutes in length, and supplemented with a teacher's guide. Their titles are self-explanatory: What's It All About?¹ Your Plans, Service and Citizenship, Starting Now, Getting Ready Physically, Getting Ready Emotionally, Getting Ready Morally, Nation To Defend, What Are the Military Services?, When You Enter Service, Military Life and You, Communism, Your Investment in the Future, and Why You?

WHY YOU?

Films explaining the provisions of the six-month active duty training under the Reserve Forces Act of 1955 can be obtained upon request without charge from the Military Adviser of the local Reserve Training Center or from the Recruiting Officer, or by writing to the Chief of the Military District in the respective state. These include *Men 17 to 18½—Your Future and the New Reserve Law* (16mm, B&W, sound, 12-minute); and *Ya Gotta Plan, Man* (animated cartoon in musical jingle designed for the teenager, 16mm, Color or B&W, 14-minute).

These publications for the teacher and counselor are recommended as supplemental:

Keep on Learning, Office of Armed Forces Information and Education, Department of Defense, Washington 25, D.C.

Catalog of the United States Armed Forces Institute, Department of Defense, Washington 25, D.C., or U. S. Armed Forces Institute, Madison 3, Wisconsin.

The Army Information Digest, February 1956, is a special issue exclusively devoted to the explanation of the Reserve Forces Act, a ready compendium of reference for the principal and counselor; procurable from Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

A 6 Months Army Special, for young men 17 to 18½ only, is a pictorial presentation, explaining the Reserve Forces Act of 1955. It is designed for distribution to the individual student. It may be procured free of charge by requesting a desired number of copies through the Military Adviser of the local Reserve Training Center or from the Military District of the respective state.

With the help of the foregoing publications and aids, the principal and his faculty can advise the graduating senior of his privileges, obligations, and opportunities under the Reserve Forces Act of 1955. So advised, the student will have his fears allayed about the uncertainties of entering service. His education or future employment will be realized with least interruption. His parents' anxiety will be turned into a sense of security. The interests of the country will be served by providing an effectively trained pool of Reservists, ready to ward off a threat to our way of life.

¹The introductory film "What's It All About?" is of interest to teachers to acquaint them with the reasons for military preparations and for the necessity of youth entering the service.

Policies for Activity Programs and Accounting Procedures

BERNARD H. VOGES

MONEY is related in many ways to the organization and administration of programs of education. Financing of a public enterprise such as education is of interest and concern to the public. Sometimes financing problems are quite indirect, such as costs involved in the use of the school plant or salaries for the services of personnel who are involved in part in an educational activity other than classroom instruction.

Sources of money for different phases of educational programs vary. Generally such variations might fall roughly into three categories as follows: (1) revenue from local and state tax resources; (2) revenue from admissions, dues, or collections; and (3) revenue from donations.

The first of these categories constitutes an accounting problem for the receipt and expenditure of money with which boards of education have been traditionally concerned. Since the phenomenal growth in recent years of programs of extracurricular activities, accounting for receipts and expenditures related to the latter two categories have tended more and more to present a problem of concern to boards of education.

Apparently the fundamental issue lies in the determination of whether or not the board of education has a responsibility for moneys collected and disbursed for specific activities such as the music program, the athletic program, clubs, and classes when such functions are designated extracurricular. The problem becomes more crystalized when such activities are operated from moneys other than from tax sources.

In fact, there are some rather pertinent questions regarding the handling of activity money which need careful analysis and evaluation on a continuing basis. A study of the problem points toward a pattern of operation and a set of policies of boards of education with respect to the handling of moneys and activities. Policies probably can best be determined from a study directed by the chief administrative officer of the board of education. Regular recurring evaluation would provide a basis for amending philosophy and policies from time to time as desirable.

Some of the more obvious questions which occur when analyzing the responsibility of boards of education concerning receipts and expenditures of moneys noted in the three categories above seem to be:

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1. Is the board of education responsible for the accounting procedures?
2. How should the responsibility for implementing such procedures be channeled?
3. Does the board of education have legal authority to determine policy with respect to accounting procedure?
4. What concern, if any, should the board of education have with regard to accounting procedures?
5. Is the administrative and instructional staff employed by the board of education concerned with problems of accounting?
6. What is the relationship or role of pupils with respect to accounting procedure?

It is difficult to proceed very far in the examination of questions involving accounting for activity money without recognizing the philosophy in the statement by Briggs¹ which emphasizes that it is the first duty of the school to teach pupils to do better the desirable things that they will do anyway. An examination of literature related to the subject of school activity reveals a rather wide range of data on the subject. Fretwell² devotes a detailed chapter to the subject, Douglass³ treats the problem, Cox⁴ approaches the subject through budget practice and life experience of pupils, and Spears⁵ suggests the importance of democratic principles involved in school activity operation.

There is currently being prepared through a committee of the Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada⁶ a publication planned to suggest in rather complete detail devices and techniques involving accounting practices for activity money. This publication has been preceded by a study prepared by the same Association⁷ which points out in some detail the many aspects of the problem. A basic assumption for guidance in establishing principles for activity financial structure is as follows: "The raising and expending of activity funds by student bodies can have only one basic end in view: to promote the general welfare, education and morale of all the pupils and to finance the normal legitimate extra-curricular activities of the student body organization without embarrassment to any individual pupil."⁸

Of interest at the present time is a preliminary draft of a financial accounting handbook to be made available by the United States Office of

¹Briggs, Thomas H. *Improving Instruction*. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1939. P. 219.

²Fretwell, Elbert K. *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1931. Chapter XVII.

³Douglass, Earl R. *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*. New York: Ginn and Company. 1945. Pp. 454-463.

⁴Cox, Phillip W. L. *Creative School Control*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1927. Pp. 124-127.

⁵Spears, Harold. *The Emerging High School Curriculum and Its Direction*. New York: American Book Company. 1940. Pp. 159-160.

⁶Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada, *Manual of Accounting Procedures for Student Activity Funds*, (in preparation)

⁷Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada, *Proceedings Fortieth Convention*, pp. 382-402.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 383.

Education. Accounting for student activities is being treated in considerable detail along with suggestions for handling and accounting for activity money.

One of the real values of a publication such as is contemplated through the United States Office of Education accounting handbook lies in the fact that the publication itself will be the result of co-operative effort of personnel from all of the states, including representatives of the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Association of School Boards, the American Association of School Administrators, and the Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada. The co-operative thinking of individuals from these groups would lead to the conclusion that the accounting for activity moneys is of widespread concern.

It does not take a very thorough examination or even very wide acquaintance with procedures that exist in various schools to discover that there is extreme variation in methodology and in philosophy regarding activity accounting. Extreme conditions do exist from the very loose handling and almost complete absence of responsible supervision to very careful and adequate supervision.

Some states through their statutes prescribe the degree of responsibility which must be accepted by local boards of education. In some cases, statutory provisions require auditing. In some states there is a complete absence of statutory provision on the subject. One of the very recent developments in the area of responsibility for activity accounting may be found in an opinion of the attorney general of the state of Missouri, September 29, 1954. The sum and substance of that opinion revolves around a definition of "school district moneys." The attorney general, in the opinion, finds that revenue received by the district, whether derived from taxation, donation, state aid, or as the result of some school activity which is an incidental part of the administration and government of schools in the district, is properly classified as school district money. It is further stated that such moneys should be accounted for by the board of education in the same manner as provided by law for "so-called" school district moneys.

School law in Missouri has long had the provision of a rather complete treatment of board of education handling of school district moneys. Many boards of education found their former practice of handling activity money, and lunch money for that matter, was not in keeping with the intent of the law as interpreted by the attorney general. In order to be fair to these boards of education it should be said that the separation of funds for activities and for lunch programs was done as a matter of protection, with the thought that, by such separate bank accounts, the moneys would remain inviolate.

It would not be difficult to discover that such practice has in reality resulted in three bookkeeping systems—that is to say, one for tax moneys for the so-called "regular" education program, one for the activity pro-

gram, and one for the lunch program. It is evident that the problem of responsibility is compounded when moneys are separated as far as the accounting structure is concerned.

Boards of education in Missouri, through their chief administrative officers, have re-assessed their financial accounting structure. This re-assessment, coupled with a desire to operate in accordance with the statutes, has brought about the inclusion of activity money and lunch money within the accounting structure of moneys handled by the board of education under the description or title of "school district moneys." This means, therefore, that one accounting system will accomplish the bookkeeping needs for the moneys collected and spent for the daily school program, moneys collected and spent for the activity program, and moneys collected and spent for the lunch program.

If the board of education provides budgetary procedure for tax moneys there would be little defense for the lack of budgetary planning on the part of the activity program and its needs. The handling of the activity financial structure through a budgetary process leads immediately to the co-operation and participation of pupils, instructional staff, administrative personnel, and the board of education. There is a real opportunity for the democratic process to arise out of the operation of the activity program as an incidental part of the educational services to pupils. In actual practice, the pupil membership of an activity could very realistically participate in activity budget planning, which could well represent an educational device for instruction in the philosophy of a democratic society outside the sphere of influence of regular classroom instruction.

Let us return to some of the questions and problems raised earlier in this presentation. First, is the board of education responsible for accounting procedures? There is, of course, no doubt that the board is responsible for accounting procedures for school district moneys. If, after analyzing the operation of activities which grow out of the instructional program, the board accepts its responsibility completely, there seems to be little doubt that the board should provide for accounting procedures for activity moneys.

How should the responsibility for implementing such procedures be channeled? There seem to be two directions that are basic: (1) accounting for activity moneys separately from the so-called board of education moneys, (2) intermingling such money, but through the process of accounting keeping records so as to make available financial information pertaining to school district money as opposed to activity money. One of the tremendous problems in this area rests with whether or not it is more desirable to have one accounting scheme or several.

Does the board of education have legal authority to determine policy with respect to accounting procedure? As has been indicated, some state statutes clearly set out the responsibility of the board with respect to activity moneys, while in some instances the statutes are silent. It does seem reasonable that, if the board of education permits the operation

of an activity program on the basis that such program is educationally justifiable, the same board of education in turn would need to accept its responsibility of financial management of money for these activities.

Is the administrative and instructional staff employed by the board of education concerned with problems of accounting? If a teacher employed by the board is to be assigned the duty of sponsoring an activity which in part involves the receipt and expenditure of money for that activity, it can hardly be argued that the board of education could expect its own employees to accept separate responsibility for financial management of such activity.

What is the relationship or role of pupils with respect to the accounting procedure? Fundamentally the role of pupils in the area of activity accounting is found in the many opportunities for instruction in receiving, budgeting, and determining the wise use of money for the activity or activities to which pupils may belong.

In all too many instances boards of education may not have accepted their responsibility for financial management of activities which they have condoned, and, at the same time, they have neglected to some degree the teaching opportunities available for pupils through the supervision by instructors sponsoring various aspects of the activity program.

Consider our inconsistencies in the area of problems concerning activity moneys. We presently agree that classroom instruction such as English, history, *etc.*, are programs which should be supported from state and local sources of revenue on a partnership basis. The major source of local revenue is from property taxation. Such taxes, of course, are paid by parents and patrons of pupils. Our democratic concept of educational opportunity envisions "free" public education for all.

Is the extracurricular or activity program an essential part of the educational opportunity? If so, what defense is there for a fee, admission, or membership charge for participation in an activity either for participants or pupil spectators? It would seem just as logical to provide "free" participation in the activity program as for the regular classroom work. The exclusion of pupils with limited means certainly does not follow the democratic concept of "free" public education for all.

Tax support of schools comes from the same parents and patrons as do fees, admissions, and membership charges for pupils in the activity program. Thus excluding pupils because of limited means or non-payment represents exclusion of a taxpayer's son or daughter from a generally accepted educational venture. The same pupil is accorded full participation of tax supported areas of education—while being denied participation in non-tax supported areas—known as activities.

The Developmental Reading Laboratory - A Training and Proving Ground for Readers

RICHARD BLOUGH

THE Indianapolis Public School System initiated developmental reading laboratories in its eight high schools in September 1953. During an intensive three weeks study period, Indianapolis teachers were trained by professors from Purdue University. Teachers assisted and observed two groups of students from 8:00 A.M. until 10:00 A.M. daily in a reading laboratory. At 11:00 A.M., the teachers assumed their roles as students and observed reading films, took reading tests, and read books at accelerators and pacers. Afternoon sessions were devoted to lectures and research in current material in the field of reading. Teachers planned work together for purchasing materials, selecting books, ordering equipment, scheduling classes, and making courses of study.

Emmerich Manual Training High School developed the following objectives for its program:

1. To awaken interest in reading problems and solutions
 - a. Vocalization
 - b. Regression
 - c. Eye fixations
 - d. Vocabulary
2. To increase the degree of reading skill
 - a. Rate
 - b. Comprehension
 - c. Scanning
 - d. Skimming
3. To produce genuine enthusiasm for reading
 - a. Relaxation
 - b. Information
 - c. Satisfaction
4. To create the habit of reading widely
 - a. Literature
 - b. Magazines
 - c. Newspapers
5. To foster the concept that every teacher should be a teacher of reading by making the laboratory available to all teachers.

Richard Blough is Director of the Developmental Reading Laboratory in the Emmerich Manual Training High School in Indianapolis, Indiana.

Each high school has developed its own various plans for effective teaching of reading to high-school students. At the new Emmerich Manual Training High School, the developmental reading laboratory is operated in connection with regular classes in English. Three specific types of training devices used in a developmental reading laboratory and not in the classroom include the Shadowscope Reading Pacer, the Iowa Reading Films, and Better Reading Books from Science Research Association, as well as a library of interesting teenage books.

The Lafayette Instrument Company at Lafayette, Indiana, manufactures the pacer, which contains its own source of illumination and sends a beam of light at various speeds down the page of print. The reader sets the speed slightly faster than a comfortable pace and is thus forced into increasing speed, however, without loss of comprehension.

The Audio-Visual Department of the University of Iowa produces fourteen interesting reading films with controlled speeds gradually increasing from 270 words per minute to 454 words per minute. These are geared to widening the eye span by reducing the number of fixations in reading. The Better Reading Books include timed articles with corresponding tests on comprehension ability. The laboratory operates on several principles which guide its staff and personnel.

1. Anyone can increase his reading ability if he is willing to work at it.
2. Real learning in reading goes on between the student and his books; the less talking by the teacher and the more reading by the pupil the better.
3. The teacher guides by setting up conditions, by helping the student select, by testing, and by interpreting to the student his test scores.
4. The responsibility for progress and recording test scores is assumed by the student.
5. It is a dual objective to work toward the improvement of both reading skills and reading habits.

All kinds of reading are openly displayed for handling and browsing by the reader. A typical daily plan for the developmental reading laboratory period of twenty sessions would include:

- | | |
|------|---|
| 1st | Administration of Triggs Diagnostic Reading Test |
| 2nd | Interpretation of Triggs Diagnostic Reading Test |
| 3rd | Division of the class into Groups A and B |
| 4th | Explanation of laboratory procedure |
| 5th | Both groups, Film 1; Group A at Pacer; Group B—essay |
| 6th | Both groups, Film 2; Group B at Pacer; Group A—essay |
| 7th | Both groups, Film 3; Group A at Pacer; Group B—essay |
| 8th | Both groups, Film 4; Group B at Pacer; Group A—essay |
| 9th | Both groups, Film 5; Group A at Pacer; Group B—essay |
| 10th | Both groups, Film 6; Group B at Pacer; Group A—essay |
| 11th | Both groups, Film 7; Group A at Pacer; Group B—essay |
| 12th | Both groups, Film 8; Group B at Pacer; Group A—essay |
| 13th | Both groups, Film 9; Group A at Pacer; Group B—essay |
| 14th | Both groups, Film 10; Group B at Pacer; Group A—essay |
| 15th | Both groups, Film 11; Group A at Pacer; Group B—essay |

- 16th Both groups, Film 12; Group B at Pacer; Group A—essay
- 17th Both groups, Film 13; Group A at Pacer; Group B—essay
- 18th Both groups, Film 14; Group B at Pacer; Group A—essay
- 19th Administration of Triggs Diagnostic Reading Test
- 20th Interpretation of Triggs Diagnostic Reading Test

A typical laboratory session includes a reading film with a study of its vocabulary and comprehension-check questions and a period of free-choice reading at the Shadowscope Pacer. Four scores are recorded in the student's folder for film reading, film vocabulary, pacer reading, and essay comprehension.

At the beginning and conclusion of twenty laboratory sessions, different forms of the Triggs Diagnostic Reading Tests, Survey Forms are given. Results indicate an increase in speed with a corresponding jump or steadiness in comprehension. Three forms of the Triggs Tests were administered to 324 laboratory students in September 1953, January 1954, and May 1954. At the same time, a control group of 283 students, who had only regular classroom work in English, took the same tests with the following results:

Triggs Diagnostic Reading Tests
Survey Section, Forms A, B, C

Group	Words Per Minute					Comprehension			
	A	B	C	Gain	%age Inc.	A	B	C	%age Inc.
Experimental	229.4	266.0	285.8	56.4	24.6	48.2	50.6	51.8	7.5
Control	238.8	238.6	244.0	5.2	2.2	48.1	48.5	46.6	3.1

During the fall semester of 1955-56, over three hundred students worked in the reading laboratory. The following chart shows the grade level, number of students, and raw scores in speed and comprehension plus the percentage of increase over the initial testing.

Triggs Diagnostic Reading Tests
Survey Section, Forms A, B, C

Group	No.	Words Per Minute				Comprehension			
		A	B	C/D	%age Inc.	A	B	C/D	%age Inc.
9	30	265.1	342.4	—	29	58.3	69.1	—	18
10	65	258.8	267.7	—	39	53.2	62.4	—	17
11	289	253.2	275.6	291.2	11	49.8	51.8	61.0	22

It is noted by the preceding scores that progress in reading is not sacrificed for comprehension. Relative to the national norms established for the Triggs' reading tests, Manual High School has maintained a

score well above the average. An encouraging feature of the reading laboratory is the enthusiastic response of its readers. All have indicated an increase in the following from an "average" to "very much gain"; (1) reading speed, (2) comprehension, (3) vocabulary, (4) reading interest and habits. Teachers using the reading laboratory observe few discipline cases because interest has been captured and accelerated toward self-improvement.

Although several activities in the program are of a group nature, the student is given every opportunity for a personalized plan of progress. The reader's first experience is with a Trigg's Diagnostic Reading Test which points out his reading speed with rather easy, interesting material and comprehension check; his response to vocabulary, both general and technical; his ability to understand study-type reading; and his general score on all these phases of reading. His results are interpreted to him on the basis of national norms set up for his grade level and on the basis of his position relative to the total class reaction.

Secondly, the student takes an inventory of factors related to reading. In this, he checks himself as to physical factors, speed of reading, oral reading, vocabulary, comprehension, ability to use study aids, and pattern of reading. This checklist is an excellent basis for counseling the reader as to the development of his skills, needs, abilities, and habits toward better reading. The teachers can also recommend the student to the school nurse, librarian, or counselor who can help him change "doubtful" and "no" responses to "yes."

By interpreting a Trigg's Diagnostic Reading Test, by observing the student in the laboratory, by checking his reading folder, by casual conversation contacts, by class discussions of books and reading, by comparative study of students' interests in various kinds of reading material, and by case study, the laboratory teacher can help the student to identify his general reading pattern.

He can be shown that difficulty or weakness seems to appear with reading speed or comprehension, vocabulary, or general skills basic to good reading. Then he is given specific help and attention to develop more fully in these areas. Additional laboratory sessions are open to the students needing and wanting more time for practice, as well as a semester offering to seniors determined to improve their reading skills and habits.

Every step is taken to prevent an emphasis on reading acceleration from stifling a desire to read. However, the reader in a developmental reading laboratory knows that faithful, regular practice in reading, testing, recording, and evaluating is the routine training that produces better and faster readers.

Reading Can Be Improved

W. E. CAMPBELL

READING can be improved in the secondary school. During the 1954-1955 school session, the faculty of Norview High School carried out a reading program that resulted in a rise of 2.3 in the median grade level of reading ability among its pupils. Let's take a look at how this result was achieved.

Although this special reading program took place last school session, it was initiated during the previous school year. During the annual pre-school conference prior to the initiation of the program, the faculty devoted time to study of the long-range plans of the school for improvement of its instructional program. These goals were established by the faculty in 1950. Each session the faculty singled out a primary objective for study. On this occasion it decided to give immediate attention to the objective concerned with adaptation of instruction to the wide range of abilities among the pupils.

Study relative to how this objective might be most satisfactorily achieved was continued by the faculty for several weeks. Gradually the teachers reached the conclusion that their efforts should be directed toward the improvement of the reading skills of the pupils. In reaching this decision, the teachers recognized the variance in skills possessed by the pupils and believed that reading as a fundamental skill deserved priority in attention. Furthermore, they believed that reading could be improved tremendously on the secondary-school level. The outcome of this initial faculty study of the reading problems was the selection of a committee to recommend action that should be taken.

The committee began its work by trying to learn how reading might be improved. Soon it recognized that the services of an authority in the field were needed. The committee turned for help to Dr. Ullin W. Leavell, Director of the McGuffey Reading Clinic at the University of Virginia.

During the remainder of the year, the committee studied the problem of improving reading skills in the secondary school. Under Dr. Leavell's direction, various members explored the possibilities for teaching reading and experimented with the teaching of various skills in their classes. Eventually, the committee was ready to propose a reading program for the school. This was then presented to the faculty. The proposal was accepted favorably by the group; but, since the current session was drawing to a close, final adoption was postponed until the following school year.

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The program suggested to the faculty was based on the belief that the reading power of pupils can be improved through the development of specific reading skills. In order to achieve this result, the committee recommended to the faculty that the following steps should be taken to assist pupils in developing skills in reading:

1. Determination of the exact reading skills to be taught.
2. Instruction in each selected skill for ten minutes of each class period for two weeks by the teachers of four subject matter fields; namely, language arts, social studies, mathematics, and science.
3. Instruction in the selected skills by the teachers of other subjects when applicable to their particular classroom activities.
4. Use of textual materials at hand, supplemented by subject matter materials written on various grade levels.
5. Administration of the *Iowa Silent Reading Test* prior to and at the end of the program.

With regard to the specific reading skills to be taught, the faculty accepted Dr. Leavell's suggestions. The skills selected were vocabulary development, adaptive rates of reading, effective oral reading, analytical thinking in reading, synthetic thinking in reading, and reading for appreciation and pleasure. Following is an explanation of each skill in terms of suggested specific instructional activities to be undertaken by the teachers involved in the reading program.

In teaching vocabulary development, the faculty planned to help the pupils study pronunciation, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, parts of words, clues to meanings, dictionary use, words with more than one meaning, words in the making, and suffixes for word building.

Instruction of the second skill—adaptive rates of reading—was intended to include activities involving reduction of eye pauses, phrase reading, skimming, elimination of regression, quick recognition of words, increase of eye span, checking speed in relation to comprehension, and picking up thoughts quickly. To make oral reading more effective, the teachers proposed to assist pupils in accenting syllables, recognizing vowels and consonants, checking commonly mispronounced words, interpreting character through voice, and in reading dialect.

Synthetic thinking in reading was visualized as a threefold skill: (1) getting the main idea, (2) organizing the content, and (3) reaching valid conclusions. The first part of this skill included instruction in getting the gist of the meaning, recognizing main ideas and related details, using reading guideposts, finding topic sentences as guide posts, locating key words, visualizing materials read, reading with imagination and a sense of humor, and understanding total meaning. The second part of this skill—organizing the content—involved seeing the step-by-step plan, noticing the order, learning to outline, detecting the basic plan, arranging the chronological order, and summarizing to see clearly. Reaching valid conclusions—the final aspect of synthetic thinking in reading—was concerned with reading between the lines, anticipating outcomes, solving

mysteries and problems, catching the mood of the writer, judging a story, evaluating character, and seeing cause-and-effect relations.

The fifth skill—analytical thinking in reading—involved both fact finding and use of source material. The former encompassed the observing of facts as stated and implied, differentiating fact and fancy, choosing important details, finding information quickly, following directions, and reading and classifying. Use of source material was visualized as comparing sources of information, using the encyclopedia, understanding figurative language, noting how a story develops, reading travel schedules and time tables, reading charts and diagrams, and using magazine references.

Reading for appreciation and pleasure, the sixth and final skill selected by the faculty, was intended to cover such matters as seeing humor in dialect, appreciating exaggeration, appreciating words, sensing word sounds in poetry, and using imagination to get the poet's meaning.

The suggested program was presented again to the faculty during the pre-school conference prior to the next school session. After discussion, the plan was approved unanimously by the group with one reservation—that Dr. Leavell spend a day with them to demonstrate how the various reading skills might be most effectively taught. The faculty was assured that this request would be fulfilled.

Soon thereafter, Dr. Leavell came to the school and used a full day to demonstrate the teaching of the various skills. In order that all teachers might have an opportunity to see at least one demonstration, the day was organized into six parts corresponding to the six class periods of the school. Each period a group of the teachers assembled. They served as the students, with Dr. Leavell acting as the teacher. The teaching of a different skill was demonstrated each period of the day. Since all teachers did not have opportunity to be present for all demonstrations, it was planned that the teachers would provide their own interchange of experiences. Later, during the course of the reading program, the teachers exchanged freely ideas relative to the teaching of a particular skill. They found departmental meetings to be of special value for bringing out suggestions particularly applicable to the various subject matter fields.

At this point, it might be well to elaborate slightly relative to the reasoning back of the suggested program. In the first place, it can be assumed rather safely that beyond the primary grades, insufficient attention is given to actual instruction in the development of reading skills. During the upper elementary grades and in the secondary school, the pupil is taught largely along subject matter lines. Each field of study has its own body of content. The mastery of these materials becomes the primary objective. In the upper elementary grades, attention to reading may be confined to a designated period of the school day. In the secondary school, instruction in reading is generally considered the prerogative and the responsibility of the language arts teacher. The result thereof is

that little attention is given to the development of the essential reading skills.

The second assumption underlying the program is that the necessary reading skills vary with the particular field of study. For example, the reading of a mathematics problem needs to be done in a way different from the rapid perusal of a work of fiction. Here, the faculty came to realize that the teaching of reading was a responsibility of each teacher, regardless of the subject matter under study.

Next, the teachers realized that the suggested program could be undertaken without loss of attention to the immediate field of content. On the other hand, the teachers developed an assurance that instruction in all fields of study should be made more effective through improvement of the reading ability of the pupils. To illustrate, the teachers discovered that the first selected skill—vocabulary development—could be taught more effectively through use of the subject matter at hand. For example, a pupil does not ordinarily learn scientific vocabulary in an English class. Even if the English teacher took time for a study of biological terms, the instruction would be less meaningful than in the biology class.

Finally, the group came to believe that the improvement of reading skills depends on actual instruction designed toward that end. In other words, the skills can be improved if effort is exerted in that direction.

What were the results achieved during this reading program? The faculty depended largely on the *Iowa Silent Reading Test* to affirm progress made. Form Advanced BM was administered in October, and form Advanced DM in April. The median standard scores are revealed in Table I. From the data presented herein, it can be ascertained that the

TABLE I—MEDIAN STANDARD SCORES IN GRADE EQUIVALENTS OF THE IOWA SILENT READING TEST FOR NORVIEW HIGH SCHOOL

Grade		No. of Pupils	Form BM October	No. of Pupils	Form DM April
Ten	Boys	165	9.58	174	11.23
	Girls	180	10.01	179	11.94
	Total	345	9.80	353	11.60
Eleven	Boys	133	10.91	144	12.58
	Girls	163	12.31	151	13.0+
	Total	296	11.41	295	13.0+
Twelve	Boys	80	11.26	105	13.0+
	Girls	121	12.35	131	13.0+
	Total	201	11.93	236	13.0+
All Grades	Boys	378	10.30	423	12.01
	Girls	464	11.21	461	13.0+
	Total	842	10.74	884	13.0+

median grade level of students in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades rose from 10.7 in October, to 13.0+ in April. Whereas the sophomores increased their median from 9.8 to 11.6, the juniors advanced from 11.41 to 13.0, while the seniors progressed from 11.93 to 13.0.

However, the test results were not completely satisfying to the faculty. The teachers were curious as to how much of the improvement in reading skills might still be evident during the following school session. Consequently, form Advanced AM of the Iowa test was administered the next October. Median standard scores are presented in Table II for the eleventh and twelfth grades, the current classes involved in the reading program of the past school session.

It can be observed from Table II that retention of gained reading power was remarkably high. Grade eleven showed a median standard score of 11.60 at the end of the previous session; whereas, it now held to 11.58. Twelfth-grade pupils retained their full progress, holding to an average of 13.0+. Although some variation can be noted in the separate scores for boys and girls, this does not seem unduly significant. Median scores on the Iowa test beyond the 12.5-grade level fluctuate greatly. A difference of one point on a test score results in wide differentiation of the median score.

TABLE II—MEDIAN STANDARD SCORES IN GRADE EQUIVALENTS OF THE IOWA SILENT READING TEST FOR NORVIEW HIGH SCHOOL

Grade		No. of Pupils	Form AM October
Eleven	Boys	182	11.08
	Girls	178	13.0+
	Total	360	11.58
Twelve	Boys	142	13.0+
	Girls	148	13.0+
	Total	290	13.0+
Both Grades	Boys	324	11.75
	Girls	326	13.0+
	Total	650	13.0+

Another aspect of the program has also been investigated—the ratio of pupils who failed classes. Although the findings in this regard cannot be considered conclusive, nevertheless, they are interesting. Plans for checking the percentage of failed pupils for each class during the coming years have already been made. Comparison of the number of failures for the two school sessions is presented in Table III, which indicates that the percentage of failed pupils for all classes decreased from 7.3 to 6.7.

TABLE III—PUPILS WHO FAILED CLASSES AT NORVIEW HIGH SCHOOL

	<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>
Number of failed classes	613	602
Number of pupils enrolled in school	1475	1589
Percentage of failed pupils	7.3	6.7

The percentage of failed pupils in English classes also decreased last school session. Table IV shows that the percentage of failures for eleventh-grade English decreased from 10.5 for the first school year to 6.3 for last session. Pupils who failed twelfth-grade English declined from 3.7 to 2.9 per cent. This trend was not true for freshmen and sophomores, which classes were not involved in the reading program. The percentage of failed pupils in English classes for the former group increased from 10.5 to 11.9, while the latter group rose from 10.5 to 10.8.

TABLE IV—PUPILS WHO FAILED ELEVENTH- AND TWELFTH-GRADE ENGLISH CLASSES AT NORVIEW HIGH SCHOOL

	<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>
Number of pupils who failed classes in eleventh-grade English	22	22
Number of pupils enrolled	216	351
Percentage of failed pupils	10.2	6.3
Number of pupils who failed classes in twelfth-grade English	9	8
Number of pupils enrolled	244	269
Percentage of failed pupils	3.7	2.9

It cannot be proved that the improvement of reading skills was solely responsible for a lower percentage of pupils who failed classes. Probably the interest manifested by the pupils in improving their reading ability may have accounted for greater interest and effort on their part, not only in English classes but also in other classes. Truly, it can be said that their interest in the reading program was intense. This concern on the part of the pupils is largely accountable to the fact that the faculty explained to the pupils the reasons for the all-out effort to improve reading. In addition, on his first visit to the school, Dr. Leavell discussed the program with representative pupils. Therefore, it seems fairly safe to assume that the reading program provided for the pupils both motivation and improved reading skills that carried over to all subjects.

What is the present status of the reading program at Norview? Late last school session, Dr. Leavell met with the committee on reading, and plans were evolved for the current school session. These plans indicate

that the faculty is determined to continue its effort to improve the reading skills of the pupils. The program now underway is based largely on a study of the results of the Iowa *Silent Reading Tests* administered last school session and during October 1955. More attention is being given to the results achieved by each pupil in the various reading skills. The plan of classroom instruction has been modified from that used last session. Following is the plan for the reading program last year:

1. Freshmen—teaching of reading skills, ten minutes daily in the English, social studies, mathematics, science, and other classes that wish to participate in the reading program.

2. Sophomores—teaching of reading skills, one period weekly in English, social studies, mathematics, and science classes.

3. Juniors—teaching of reading skills, one period, weekly in English classes only.

4. Seniors—The senior English teachers will decide upon the needs of their respective classes and teach to fill those needs.

In concluding this report of how one faculty is seeking to improve the instructional program of the school through the development of the reading skills of the pupils, the writer wishes to emphasize two points. *First*, it should be kept in mind that the program started with in-service education. For several sessions the faculty had worked together toward the improvement of various aspects of the educational program; such as, guidance services, use of audio-visual materials, and the pupil activity program. Therefore, the reading program was a culmination of years of planned programs of professional growth. Actually the reading program provides an example of in-service education in operation. It is doubtful if the successes realized in the current program would have occurred if the faculty had not experienced years of working together toward advancement of the educational program of the school.

In addition, it needs to be emphasized that during the course of the study of reading, the teachers were well supplied with the materials they needed and with the consultative help they desired. These resources were made available as soon as possible after their need was apparent. Thus, little time elapsed between the statement of a need and its fulfillment. Thereby, the interest of the teachers was maintained at a high level throughout the school session.

The current plans of the school as heretofore stated indicate a determination by the faculty to carry further the efforts to improve reading skills of the pupils. It will be interesting to examine the results of the testing at the end of this session, when form Advanced CM of the Iowa test will be administered. How will progress this year compare with that achieved during the prior session? What will be the results after the program has been in operation for three or four years? What long-term possibilities does the program possess? These and other questions may be answered in time by the Norview faculty.

The Navy's Reading Program

S. S. LEON

“WHY can't Johnny read? Or can he?” These questions and the answers given have recently been causing a nation-wide furor among parents and educators. The U. S. Navy has no pat answer to this question, but it has its own ideas of how to teach basic reading to the small percentage (about 2½ to 6%) entering recruit training at San Diego Naval Training Center who can not read at the fifth-grade level.

Regulations require the Armed Forces to accept, as 27 per cent of its total enlistees, men who make passing but low scores in the Armed Forces Qualification test, which is given to all would-be enlistees. A small percentage of these men cannot read at fifth-grade or higher levels as determined by the USAFI Reading Comprehension Test, and for Navy purposes, are considered virtual non-readers. (USAFI stands for United States Armed Forces Institute, which provides in-service education for interested officers and enlisted men.)

Navy recruiters stress the importance of staying in school until receiving that high-school diploma. High-school graduates are more useful to themselves and to the Navy and can qualify, when enlisting, for special Navy service schools after finishing recruit training. Nevertheless, the Navy has quotas to fill in order to keep the nation's foreign and defense commitments, which depend on a trained, up-to-strength Navy. Consequently, the Navy takes pains to qualify all enlistees in the basic “communication skills” as quickly and soundly as possible. And if Johnny Recruit can't read, the Preparatory Training Unit at San Diego's Recruit Training Command usually brings him up to fifth-grade level in an average of about seven weeks. About ninety percent of the Unit's students reach that level, taking from a minimum of three weeks to a maximum of thirteen. The very few who don't make it usually receive general discharges which in themselves do not necessarily exempt a man permanently from further military service. There are other preparatory Training Units (at Great Lakes, Michigan, and Bainbridge, Maryland), whose programs are very similar to San Diego's, although their problems and techniques vary.

About ten per cent of the “non-readers” are non-English speaking recruits. These men often have adequate education in their own language, but are sent to “prep training” because of their inadequacy with English.

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The San Diego unit has "graduated" about 7,000 men since its beginnings in mid-1951. A "non-reader" enlistee is sent to the Recruit Preparatory Training Unit for a well-packed military orientation schedule as well as for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic. This formal classroom instruction accounts for about only three hours of the student's day.

After passing Prep Training's reading test, which is usually the Navy's Reading Achievement Examination—on which a man must score at the fifth-grade level—a recruit is sent to a regular recruit training company where he goes through "boot camp" proper.

It is a well-supported fact that most Prep Training "grads" do well in boot camp proper. Many grads make Recruit Petty Officer, and many have been their company's Honor Man. Two RPTU grads were selected for the American Spirit Honor Medal, which is given only to the most outstanding recruits upon their finishing of recruit training—picked from an average of about 1,000 recruits, the medal is given to the man finishing recruit training each week who most "exemplifies the American spirit, honor, initiative, and high example to his comrades in arms."

This success is no surprise to their instructors, who are chief and first-class petty officers of the Regular Navy, men of wide experience and capability in dealing with men. Although only a few of the fifteen or so classroom instructors at Prep Training have specific college level schooling in education, all have completed Navy Instructors' school. In spite of their remarkable ninety per cent success with problem readers, the instructors, like all good teachers, feel that they would always profit from some formal training (in teaching reading).

Almost unanimously, the instructors say that the student's attitude is of prime importance; they consider the student's desire to learn to read as one of their main goals. The instructors in the classroom have no other recruit training duties, thus enabling the classroom to have a separate and less rigidly military atmosphere than other prep training activities.

Classroom instructors are given a free hand to plan their classroom activities. They feel that this is a near-must, since the achievement levels of the members of each class vary widely and in different respects. Also, some instructors say that having a loose lesson plan permits them to emphasize learning material as it grows out of the classroom situation. The school emphasizes textbooks and study manuals written about the Navy, thereby hoping to "teach Navy" simultaneously and to use material in which recruits are interested and with which they are working.

But these overtones of so-called progressive education are tempered with a well-disciplined, though fairly informal, class and wide use of traditional phonics (teaching the sounds which letters make so that words can be "sounded out"). Nearly all the instructors believe that *both* phonics and word recognition (learning the words as wholes by association with experience and context) are important, and most emphasize phonics. As one instructor put it, "These men use and know most of the

words they encounter here; they just can't recognize and read them. Therefore, sounding out words phonetically works best."

Other factors which most instructors say are very important include: the student's self-confidence, patience, and praise; using visual and other training aids; good classroom conditions (lighting, temperature, *etc.*); and small classes (never more than 26 in a class in the crowded school, and preferably only 10 or 15). Most believe that three classroom hours a day is about right.

While most say that knowing the individual student's family and educational background is only fairly important, (perhaps reflecting a Navy-man's evaluation of a man by what he does rather than where he came from or what he did before), they also overwhelmingly declare that individual attention and help are indispensable in teaching the men to read. Instructors are also watchful for cases of physical defects that sometimes occur, such as poor eyes or hearing.

As opposed to outright repetition, the teachers favor using different contexts and opportunities to bring up words to which students have already been introduced. They affirmed the desirability of using both student participation and teacher demonstration and lecturing. However, students reading aloud also received instructor approval.

Eventual success of prep-training grads after recruit training and out in the fleet is not a well-known quantity. Available evidence indicates that they go on to become good sailors—just as good as the people in their own mental group who were adequate readers when they enlisted.

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WATCH FOR FURTHER ANNOUNCEMENTS

Understanding Relativity at Different Levels of Personal Maturity

HAROLD H. PUNKE

WITH recent growth in technology, there has been much discussion on implications of the theory of "relativity"—also some confusion. One area of confusion concerns the spheres of knowledge and experience to which the theory might relate. Another concerns the educational background and insight necessary to understand what relativity means. Both areas are important for the content and method of educational programs.

1. *Can young children understand relativity.*—To persons who think of relativity in terms of Einstein's mathematics, it may seem naive to ask if a six-year-old can understand relativity. If children are considered, a broader concept must be implied.

There is a child's primer entitled *How Big Is Big*. If we say a person has a big nose, "big" has a different connotation from what it has if we say he has big feet or a big house. If we speak of a big idea, big warship, big national debt, or big country, "big" has further connotations. So, the concept "big" is relative. While first-grade pupils are not likely to make the analysis suggested, most of them recognize the relatively of the concept. When one mentions old shoes, he has a different conception of "old" from that when he refers to an old man, old custom, or old nation. "Hot" has different implications when referring to the weather, a bowl of soup, an automobile motor, and an ore smelting furnace. The same applies to the concept "maturity"—as being physical, social, or intellectual; or as applying to persons, ideas, or cheese. How much wealth must one own to be "rich"? In 1890, a million dollars was sufficient. Since our World Wars there are so many persons "worth a million" that more is needed now to rate the status "rich." Considerable depends on whether one lives in a small town or swanky suburb—whether in this country or Norway. A popular magazine recently carried pictures of the well-dressed Zulu debutant. The costumes differed, especially in design and amount, from those of American debutants—but both are well-dressed, relative to standards of their respective cultures. Many aspects of life—food, clothing, shelter, recreation, or tools for work—which were adequate or progressive in grandpa's day are now obsolete. We say, the world has moved on. The point here is that most children in the elementary school are aware of

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the relative character of concepts such as those indicated—with implications depending on setting.

2. *Youth and laymen, on relativity.*—Most senior high-school youth, and laymen of comparable intellectual development, can understand more intricate ramifications of relativity. Such persons should realize that one's capacity to learn at a particular time is relative to the amount he already knows; that norms or standards regarding human behavior are determined by what a majority have done or seem able to do; a task may be difficult or easy depending on one's know-how and equipment; a child appears bright, large, healthy, clean, congenial, obedient, responsible, *etc.*, in comparison with other children; earnings of particular vocational groups are high or low relative to other groups, the cost of living, or the amount paid at other times or in other places. Indexes of purchasing power, of the dollar, likewise have a relative base.

Persons of the maturity indicated realize that "scientific laws" are statements of relationship—the volume of a gas varies with temperature and pressure; the weight of the atmosphere is relative to evaluation above sea level; the square on the hypotenuse of a right triangle is relative to the squares of the two sides; the equation in mathematics or chemistry is a concept of relationship; the calories and vitamins needed for an adequate diet are related to the age, health, and physical activity; direction and rate of movement of a body in space are relative to some other body—which is considered fixed, or in motion. Taxes are burdensome or otherwise relative to one's income; ancient justice of "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth", as well as more elaborate modern systems, relate punishment to type of offenses and usually to degree of moral responsibility of the offender. Each generation looks upon some of the beliefs and practices of earlier generations as superstitions and magic-mongering—black cats, food taboos, efforts at appeasing rain gods—or other gods. It is more difficult for a particular generation to realize that many of its beliefs and practices will be regarded as superstition by subsequent generations. Thus perspective demands relative evaluation. Man's conception of his place in the universe has changed substantially from the days when he thought the earth was its center—with sun, moon, *etc.*, moving around the earth each day, to the days when the sun was considered the center, and on to the view that our solar system is merely one of many such systems existing in space. The theory accepted as true has been relative to the information available.

3. *Somewhat more abstract implications of relativity.*—"Abstract" ordinarily means pulled out of, separated or extracted from—as the abstract of an article or book. An idea is abstract when it is separated from the background of fact and circumstances out of which its meaning grew. "Laws" and principles in science or mathematics may be abstractly presented to learners—if only a general conclusion or summary statement is presented, without factual details for illustration and support. When

one criticises the school curriculum as being abstract, at any level from kindergarten to graduate school, he is saying that the content is too far removed from the learner's experience—that illustrative and other intermediate materials are needed to bridge the gap.

The same applies to understanding different levels of abstraction concerning relativity—or any other theory. Since 1930, Americans have learned much about relative stability in social and economic structure, relationships between income and standard of living, use of index numbers to show relationships, and methods of tying pay rates to indexes. We know that Federal action, as in regulating cash flow and credit, can greatly influence economic stability. We also know that the rate of social change—regarding such matters as transportation, housing, food preservation, industrial production, or international problems is related to a maze of causal factors. When we say that Americans vary in degree to which such ideas are understood, we say essentially that understanding is relative to their varied experiences.

Some people have difficulty in thinking of "progress" as relative. Progress implies change—with the judgment that conditions are better after the change. Such a concept is understandable only in a culture having substantial change. It could have meant little in the days of Nebuchadnezzar. In recent America, many aspects of society reflect enough change within a lifetime to enable one to consider "progress" which he himself has seen. Since World War I such change has been obvious in communication, industrial processes, length of life, government service, employment of women, taxation, use of drugs, techniques of war, *etc.* Whether cumulative change in a field is considered progress depends on one's values in life, but this short span of recent time enables one to understand what progress means—and that it varies according to time and place.

Recent decades have witnessed considerable argument on whether social and educational aims are absolute or relative. Sometimes aims are classified as primary or permanent, and secondary or relative. Sometimes permanence is considered relative—with so-called "permanent" or "absolute" aims changing so slowly that the change is not readily perceived. Some aims seem permanent largely because they are stated in such general and abstract terms that a wide range of meaning can be read into them. This point is often reflected in religious ideals and international treaties—many possible interpretations. In subsequent years or generations, "exponents of absolutes" can then claim that their aims are the same as those of their predecessors, although their activities are widely different—regarding any effect on people or environment. The idea is illustrated by frequent restatement of aims in a war—hot or cold, shifts in conception of American democracy since 1890, or meaning of personal liberty in an industrial economy as contrasted with frontier self-sufficiency.

Question is often raised concerning relativity in morals and virtue. The particular aspects of morality or virtue considered may affect conclusions on this point. In an economy of material scarcity, thrift in using

material goods is usually emphasized. In the Orient where human life is abundant and material goods scarce, human life and energy are used wastefully, but thrift is emphasized concerning material items. The reverse characterizes present-day America. Differences in emphasis on manpower *versus* equipment in warfare is illustrative. Honoring promises, obligations, and contracts is considerably emphasized in American mores and law. But repudiations, bankruptcy, mortgage moratoriums, and similar phenomena have since 1900 somewhat changed the status of morality associated with honoring debts. In some European countries the change seems pronounced. Respect for parents varies from one society to another—as from China to this country, and from time to time—as within the United States from 1890 to 1950. Sometimes members of a family or gang are truthful with others in a small intimate circle but deliberately lie to outsiders. During wartime, developing effective ways of lying to enemies becomes a fostered art. Hence honesty is moral under some conditions and immoral under others. The idea appears in white lies, and possibly others, which doctors and kinfolk tell patients about illnesses. Concepts of sex morality vary from one culture to another. In much of Latin America, adolescent girls on dates are accompanied by their mothers. It would be immoral to omit maternal protection. It is not so in the United States. In some societies, divorce is immoral and legally forbidden. It is easy to obtain in other societies. There are similar differences regarding birth control. Hence there are many respects in which morals and ideals vary—according to time and place. Morality is relative in such respects.

Among the more difficult concepts to deal with from the relative standpoint are those relating to "ultimates"—i.e. ultimate aims of life, ultimate or infinite worth of the individual. What seems to be meant by ultimate in such cases is "long-range"—as far distant as persons using the term can imagine. But ultimate is used in ways which have different connotations regarding degree of extension from present status. The ultimate aim of an evening party may be to repay social debts or impress friends. The ultimate aim of going to college might be to satisfy ambitious kinfolk, prepare for a good job, or meet marriage eligibles. The projection concerning college extends further into the future than that concerning the evening party—ultimate has greater remoteness. We hear that the ultimate aim of Russia is to communize the world, or that the ultimate aim of a religious group is to convert the world to its faith—regardless of divergent tactics enroute. Ultimate here may imply decades or centuries. Persons who emphasize such phrases as "ultimate or infinite worth of the individual" are usually somewhat hazy regarding just what they do mean. Such phrases usually reflect hope that the lot of mankind on earth will improve, and that individuals and groups should strive to bring about improvement. When the professed aspirations are brought down to earth and focused on specific forms of exploitation which individuals suffer, improvement may come about. Whether the change is considered humanitarianism is unimportant. The important thing is that such changes are

typically made on a step-by-step basis, with each step constituting a base from which to calculate bearings for the next step. Each step is a temporary ultimate. If there has been speculation on long-range goals, the goals have to be continuously revised in terms of experience gained through successive steps. Religious groups are among those which often speak of ultimates, yet from time to time they modify their goals and practices—in the light of internal upheavals or other experience.

It is sometimes suggested that marked concern about ultimates reflects a combination of hope, confusion, ego, and escape. Hope for human betterment has been mentioned. It "springs eternal in the human breast." It seems most fruitful when reinforced by imagination and experimentation. Confusion is a normal condition of human beings who feel dissatisfied with present conditions, think that improvement may be possible, but have not yet formulated a plan of action. Much of the talk about ultimate human worth leans heavily on hope and confusion.

Ego is well developed in the smaller group who act as if they were competent to formulate goals for mankind—as long as human beings exist. The Founding Fathers of this republic are justly commended on their recognizing the limitations of their own insights, and providing for future modification of the pattern of government which they set up. Probably they learned from mistakes reported by history, in which determining the pattern of government had been treated as a one-time job. The insight of the Fathers which is pertinent in this connection is that tangible goals as well as procedures must be revised periodically—on the basis of accumulated experience. This is the step-by-step approach. It recognizes that long-range goals must be stated in general and vague terms, because of unforeseen contingencies between present status and remote goals, and that for goals to be attainable, and therefore practical, they must assume a sequence of next steps—each step an achievement and also a starting point. But with sufficient ego one can imagine himself foreseeing all possible contingencies, including further structural evolution in the human organism during future millenniums, and can set goals which could not possibly be improved on by subsequent generations.

Escape is involved where persons do not want to improve the *status quo* through laborious practical steps, or feel incompetent to formulate and carry out effective steps, and, therefore, try to focus popular attention on something so far off as to make little difference to man in his current predicaments. Until people learn that they seldom "happen upon" lofty achievements by hoping that such will be the case, but realize that such improvements as do come about will be the results of intelligent mental and physical effort, they will continue to suffer the miseries and mediocrities of the here and now while their attention may be focused on a hereafter of milk and honey. Escapes of this kind always provide avenues by which the competent but conniving can exploit the trusting but naive.

So ultimates too are relative in the foregoing sense—with the difference that the ultimates are more long-range than most of the relatives con-

sidered. Apparently the ultimates are sufficiently long-range to be out on the periphery of imagination of persons who emphasize them. More imagination would extend the range, and perhaps change the direction. And with the cultural accumulations which will be available to future generations, it seems naive to assume that their imaginations will be less fertile and creative than our own.

4. *Educational implications.*—The doctrine of relativity, as suggested in foregoing pages, has extensive educational implications. A few of the more obvious ones may be noted.

a. There are degrees of relatedness—among theories and learning areas, as among kinfolk. Brothers are more closely related than cousins—and in some countries the law does not recognize kinship beyond first cousins, although the mores do. Since little attempt has been made to legislate on the relatedness of theories or areas of knowledge, “steps” of relationship are less recognized. Perhaps relatively in theory and knowledge reflects more of a smooth continuum.

The continuum idea appears in the ease with which relatedness can be seen in the elementary-school illustrations mentioned early in this discussion, as compared with some illustrations noted later. It can perhaps also be seen in an increasing percentage of the people who understand and accept the relativity idea at the more abstract levels of application. This is apparent not only in the mathematical and technical areas, in which the work of men like Einstein is outstanding, but also in social and philosophical areas. This means that relativity itself is relative—in degree of abstraction, scope of application, and popular acceptance. The same is true of any theory.

b. As the rate of technical and social change speeds up, two developments seem to be taking place—so far as understanding relativity is concerned. One is that greater amounts of change occur within the lifetime of an individual. One can look over his own experience and recognize change in many procedures or outcomes which were once accepted as adequate. A general rise in standard of material existence is illustrative. New content and method in education is also illustrative. As more and more change takes place within one's lifetime, it becomes easier for him to compare and develop perspective—to see the relative character of many happenings and evaluations. Increase in average length of life may become significant in this connection.

The other development is that, with more rapid social and technical change, it is not only easier to understand cultural relativity but more important to do so. This relates to change and relative values within our own culture, and in foreign cultures with which we have increasing contact. It means that parents or teachers who get into eddies on the edges of the main cultural stream will become obsolete and foggyized more quickly than heretofore—as judged by the on-coming generation. “Up-keep” in areas of professional and research competence thus becomes a bigger job—

at a time when it seems increasingly difficult to get enough persons with preparation adequate even to enter such fields. From the standpoint of up-keep, trend or rate and direction of change may be more important than present status—although present status is less reassuring than often supposed.

c. In a culture such as ours, progress should be more critically examined and less generally taken for granted than seems now the case. It is not new to say that there can be no progress without change but that this does not mean that change is always progress. However such statements do imply differentiation among possible types of change—and differentiation implies criteria of judgment. But in a changing world these criteria should be flexible—and regarded as essentially temporary. Flexibility means that one cannot think too largely in terms of mere acceptance or rejection of particular changes or cultural developments, but must think of an increasingly broad area of tolerance—consisting of items which presently seem to occupy a kind of natural status, but which may later be drawn out for emphasis. These comments do not belittle the criterion; "Man is the measure of all things"—a point which cannot be developed here.

d. With ideas concerning relative values and progress goes the idea of human control over the rate and direction of change. This was discussed in connection with long-range goals and step-by-step achievement. Young people in school should learn that "wishes" and "desires" are seldom fulfilled by hopping in one leap from where one is to where he might like to be—but by laborious steps. This does not minimize the importance of constant alertness for short-cuts and bright ideas for related development or "enrichment of the cultural stream" as one pursues his immediate goal. Youth need to learn how to organize their energies and discipline themselves for persistence at difficult tasks, rather than develop the attitude that, if results do not come easily, the task may as well be given up. While it may be pedagogically unwise to demand that learners persist at tasks merely because they are difficult, as some aspects of formal discipline once maintained, there is no justification in giving up a task merely because it is difficult. Young people should learn to justify activities at least partly on grounds other than degree of difficulty involved.

e. Since relatively exists in degrees and relates to values in many aspects of life, it is easy to find illustrations which can be understood by learners at different levels of maturity. Hence it is possible to deal with the idea in the elementary school and at every subsequent level. However, teachers need to recognize the kinds of situations or illustrations which are controversial, and handle them accordingly. This is merely what constitutes good teaching in any field.

f. One problem that many teachers should recognize is that their own ideological backgrounds include numerous absolutes—which long experience has imbedded in habits and attitudes that are beyond the areas of

ordinary awareness. Self-analysis is, therefore, important concerning one's grasp of the concept of relativity and its ramifications in current American culture. This is part of the process of integration between new and old knowledge.

g. Young Americans should realize that building pipe-dreams, air-castles, and utopias may be either a fruitful exercise or a degenerating habit. Which it is depends mainly on the effort made at finding ways to bring about the goals dreamed of. When there is such effort, the dreams constitute objectives—on which varied attacks can be tried. In this sense dreams are essential to scientific method and achievement. When there is no sense of responsibility to find means for reaching the goals dreamed of, the dream is only an escape into a kind of fairyland—with the individual content merely to muse on "how nice it would be" if the dream came true. As such escape-dreams become habitual, they become degenerative—establishing attitudes and thought patterns which inhibit a realistic follow-through of suggested attacks on problems. In this respect pipe dreams and utopias have much in common with ultimates—little or no sense of responsibility for developing means of bringing the gap between present reality and the dream goals. This deceives man and dissipates his energy; it does not improve his lot.

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Toward Better International Understanding

BOB G. WOODS

EVERY educator who is even a casual follower of world affairs is well aware of the dire need of a deliberately and carefully planned program in our schools directed toward the development of international understanding. Some teachers have made and are continuing to make some effort toward this end, particularly with regard to the European countries. However, the time has arrived for *all* schools to give impetus to international understanding through their instructional program and, especially, to focus attention upon the Middle East and South Asia. It is clearly evident from recent happenings in these areas that we as a nation are rapidly losing valuable ground. There is every indication of a lack of intercultural and international understanding on the part of all parties concerned. Too often the citizens of these countries regard our extending of technical and economical aid as friendly overtures designed to conceal imperialistic aspirations and intent. Needless to say, communist propaganda has undoubtedly contributed to this mistrust.

A program designed to overcome mistrust and to improve international understanding should be a continuous one extending from the primary level through high school and college. It should be carefully planned and co-ordinated rather than being sporadically and haphazardly derived by individual teachers. Then too, while it is very definitely desirable and worthwhile to develop an appreciation for and an understanding of other countries and cultures on the part of our own youth, the ultimate goal is to develop *mutual* understanding. Therefore, the project which we undertake in our classrooms should be so designed and oriented that their benefits are of a reciprocal nature.

As a Fulbright professor to Pakistan during the 1954-55 academic year, an assignment which permitted rather extensive travel on the sub-continent along with the opportunity to visit many schools—the writer was particularly alarmed at the misconceptions which the youth of both Pakistan and India have of the people and of life in general in the United States. They picture the people of the United States as being extremely wealthy, carefree, irresponsible individuals, who frequently patronize night clubs, sipping cocktails and listening to lurid music. They are not informed that the vast majority of the people of the United States are hard-working, industrious, and thrifty. Informed observers believe that many of these misconceptions stem from movies produced in this country.

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Since the urban youth, particularly the males, of both India and Pakistan are great movie-goers, this explanation appears to be a reasonably plausible one.

Such observations lead one to believe that an extensive dissemination of accurate information would go far in enhancing the stock of the United States and its people in these all-important underdeveloped areas of the world. The teachers and pupils of the schools of our nation are in an excellent position to make a valuable contribution in this connection through a direct exchange of information at the grass roots' level; that is, an exchange of social, economical, political, and most important of all, cultural information with the teachers and pupils of the schools of the Middle East and South Asia as well as the European countries. While we are increasing the level of international understanding on the part of our own youth, we can at the same time pave the way for a better understanding of our country and our way of life on the part of the youth of these other countries where our status is definitely in peril.

The questions which the young people of the sub-continent ask concerning our country and our way of life center around such topics as racial discrimination, industrial development, standard of living, home and family life, and particularly about adolescent customs and standards of behavior. In these countries where 90 per cent or more of the marriages are the result of parental matchmaking, it is very difficult for the young people to understand why we permit our adolescent youth to go out on dates unchaperoned. They see a great paradox in the basic tenets of our democratic way of life and the news releases which they read concerning racial discrimination, and few of them show reticence in interrogating a United States citizen on this topic. Here again, the communists have been influential in persuading many of the people of South Asia and the Middle East that religious and racial intolerance is the rule rather than the exception in the United States. The people of India, for example, need information to make them aware of the fact that the Negro problem in the United States is similar to the problem of the untouchables in their own country, and that progress is being made although all evils cannot be immediately eliminated with the passage of laws and with court decisions. We need to publicize our accomplishments rather than our shortcomings. Suffice it to say that the people of many of the foreign countries of the world are as poorly informed about us and our culture as we are about them.

Most people are agreed that international understanding is definitely essential if not the key to peace. If this be the case, then how do we proceed? One of the first tasks with which teachers are confronted is the developing of a level of understanding on the part of their pupils that the people of all countries are human beings who are conditioned by their own environment and culture. We need to develop an appreciation for the dignity and worth of all people regardless of religious, racial, or cultural background. This implies, then, that there is a need for greater dissemina-

tion of information concerning the cultural environment of other countries in our own schools. It is absurd to judge another people on the basis of the limited and perhaps slanted bit of information which one obtains from newspapers, popular magazines, and other even less reliable media.

Although adequate research evidence is lacking at this time, the exchange of students, teachers, research scholars, and lecturers has undoubtedly been an important if not the most effective means of improving international understanding. Most informed observers are agreed that the various exchange programs should be greatly expanded, providing, *first*, that the recipients of such grants are carefully and properly selected, and, *second*, that there is adequate programming so that the types of experiences which the grantees encounter will yield maximum benefit. It seems reasonable to assume that the more foreign people one meets and makes friends with the greater will be the resulting progress toward international understanding. Generalizing about other peoples and cultures on the basis of information gained from one stereotyped individual can have harmful results.

While the exchange of competent persons is unquestionably one of the best ways of furthering international understanding, there are many other ways in which schools and even individual teachers can make a valuable contribution through the medium of existing courses. The professional literature, including curriculum guides and courses of study, shows evidence of a great deal of attention already being devoted toward this goal in our schools. New York City and Cleveland serve as two notable examples where the approach to the development of international understanding has been undertaken on a city-wide basis. A UNESCO Council of New York City has been set up in the first instance to co-ordinate and direct the efforts of the high schools toward the development of international understanding. An "International Relations Curriculum Center" has been established in Cleveland to serve as the hub and to give impetus to the over-all program. Upon critical examination, however, it is apparent that the inclusion of this all-important aspect of the curriculum in all levels of our school organization throughout the nation is more often a hit-and-miss type of program. Many school administrators and teachers recognize its importance but are at a loss to know where to begin and how to proceed. Perhaps a reiteration of some of the activities and techniques being currently employed in various schools would be apropos here.

Needless to say, one of the oldest, most widely used, and perhaps most effective methods involves an exchange of letters, snapshots, notebooks, albums, and similar materials produced by the students either collectively or individually. Such projects might be undertaken on a small scale in which individual students correspond with a "pen pal" abroad, or they might be undertaken on a more extensive basis with the entire school becoming allied with a sister school in a foreign country for the purpose of exchanging letters, various products of school art and handicraft, and other types of instructional materials. Anyone, who has witnessed the

enthusiasm engendered among the pupils of a school in one of the under-developed countries of the world by the receipt of a gift box or album from the pupils of an American school, will not question the value of this type of activity. Such a project has many virtues, not the least of which is the motivation of learning which results from direct person-to-person contact with foreign students. Another is the better understanding which our students gain of our own country and way of life while attempting to depict and interpret these to others. The exchange of letters and other types of pupil-made instructional materials is undoubtedly one of the potentially best methods of improving international understanding and good will toward peoples of other countries, and, what's more, it is an enjoyable activity which can be easily undertaken by all teachers.

The names and addresses of foreign teachers and potential "pen pals" can be obtained from the following sources: U. S. Office of Education, Division of International Education, Washington 25, D. C.; Society of Friends, San Francisco, California; and International Friendship League, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston 8, Massachusetts. The School Affiliation Service of the American Friends Service Committee, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (see *Educational Leadership*, April, 1954, pp. 424-7) operates a program whereby schools in the United States are paired or allied with schools in certain foreign countries for the purpose of exchanging various types of instructional materials, thus contributing toward international understanding. Other projects sponsored by this organization consist of work camps, conferences, institutes, and similar activities which often include participants from many countries.

The international programs of the Junior Red Cross have made a valuable contribution toward the promotion of international awareness and the development of mutual understanding among the school youth of many different countries. As the curricular implications of these programs become better known and understood by educators, participation is certain to mushroom, consequently yielding a rich harvest of international friendships of inestimable worth. Perhaps the most far-reaching and beneficial of these projects involves the preparation of gift boxes by pupils of our schools to be sent to foreign children, thus resulting into an exchange of correspondence and, subsequently, international understanding.

Another commendable undertaking of the Junior Red Cross is its International Correspondence Program which consists of the exchange of albums containing art, photographs, and written materials designed to present a true picture of life in one's country. It affords an excellent opportunity for the participation of students and teachers of various subjects, and also provides for the expression of youth's creative inclinations. Other programs sponsored by the Junior Red Cross which are designed to promote world understanding are the High School Chest Program, the International School Art Program, and the International School Exhibit Material Program. The latter project involves the prepara-

tion of a display containing photographs, handicraft objects, specimens, models such as dolls in native dress, filmstrips, slides, and other audio-visual aids.

Because of the reciprocal nature of the benefits of the foregoing projects, they are extremely valuable and should be extensively adopted by the teachers and pupils of both our elementary and secondary schools. There are, of course, many annoying problems involved in this type of undertaking. Mail service to many of the remote places of the world is slow and often uncertain, thus resulting into delays in exchange and, sometimes in the loss of pupil interest. Then there is often the problem of translating the letters and other written materials. The exchange of pictures, art handicraft objects, and music recordings eliminates language barriers to a great extent, although in many under-developed areas equipment is not available for the playing of records and the showing of slides and films. In East Pakistan, for example, the U. S. Information Service found it necessary to supply kerosene lantern projectors to the schools in the villages before instructional slides and filmstrips provided by the USIS could be shown.

There are numerous projects and learning activities of unilateral benefit which can be undertaken at both the elementary- and secondary-school levels. In some schools, committees have been established on international understanding for the purpose of directing and co-ordinating the over-all program. The school library can make a valuable contribution through displays of appropriate books and other printed materials, by arranging exhibits featuring foreign countries, by supplying lists of materials classified according to countries, and in many other ways. A file of resource people who have lived in or traveled to foreign countries and who are willing to co-operate by giving talks, showing pictures, or displaying collections can be compiled for school-wide use.

Teachers of all subjects, as well as at all levels, can make a valuable contribution toward developing better international understanding. The following suggestions are merely examples and by no means an exhaustive presentation of the types of activities which can be undertaken. Social studies courses can be enriched with units centered around "world citizenship" and by devoting attention to the way of life of the people of the various countries of South Asia and the Middle East as well as in other parts of the world. The teaching of current affairs, if properly conducted, is an excellent means of developing an awareness of the hopes, problems, and ways of life of other peoples. The English teacher can likewise contribute through letter-writing projects and through the study of the literature pertaining to other lands and people. Foreign language teachers can increase intercultural understanding through the use of audio-visual aids and other means designed to fit the language into its cultural context. Mathematics and science teachers can also make a contribution. In biology a study of plant and animal life of other countries can be incorporated into the course of study, while in other science courses

attention can be devoted to scientific contributions of the various countries as well as to their level of technical and scientific development. Problems concerning foreign rates of exchange, costs of travel, and similar topics designed to stimulate interest in foreign countries can be woven into mathematics courses without deterring the attainment of the course objectives.

The planning of a vicarious trip with all its related ramifications can be developed into an excellent unit for a core curriculum class. For example, planning the itinerary, computing expenditures, studying the geography, history, and culture of the people of the various countries, corresponding with foreign embassies and consulates for information, obtaining travel information from public carriers and travel agencies, and similar activities can be made into both interesting and valuable learning experiences.

In some high schools a senior social studies course, such as World Problems, has been made the focal point for the teaching of international understanding. However, many educators are agreed that the most practical approach to the goal of developing international understanding is by enriching the existing courses in the curriculum with appropriate instructional materials and activities and by making adequate provision for the co-ordination of the over-all program.

The important factor, however, is not necessarily the manner in which a school's program for teaching international understanding is organized, but that it *does have* an adequate program—preferably one that includes the direct exchange of information with the teachers and pupils of schools in foreign countries. When boys and girls at home and abroad learn that the hopes, dreams, and aspirations of human beings in other democratic countries are not too different from their own and that a person's attitudes, thoughts, and mode of behavior are largely conditioned by environmental factors, *mutual* understanding is sure to result. This being the case, an all-out offensive in the classroom might forestall the need for a future all-out offensive on the military front.

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Kenneth Henderson is the Operator of the Henderson Company, 10315 Montrose Avenue, Washington 14, D. C.

Titles will be advertised in educational publications as they are approved by the Advisory Council. Later, a catalogue will be compiled and sent to all principals of elementary and secondary schools. To assure teachers of maintaining educational schedules, the Bureau acts as a central co-ordinating organization and, if notified by the teacher that no acknowledgement of a request for material has been received within ten (10) days, will expedite matters for the teachers.

Mr Kenneth Henderson will welcome suggestions from educators as to what material is needed in their schools and what would be of the most help to them. He will be glad to send details of the Plan upon request.

In Memoriam

HAROLD BENNET BROOKS

1897-1956

EVER-FORCEFUL leader and former president of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, passed away in London, England, on August 14, 1956, while on a vacation trip to Europe. He had an attack on board ship en route to England and died in a London hospital.

Dr. Brooks was an active and energetic worker for the best interests of secondary education. He was untiring in his efforts to carry through any project or assignment that would advance secondary education. He held many prominent and responsible educational positions in his state and in the nation. Among his numerous offices, he served for many years as the efficient secretary of the California Association of Secondary-School Administrators and as its president during 1943-45. For many years, his professional career was in the Long Beach, California, Public Schools, and his last position was the principalship of the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School in that city.

Dr. Brooks served his National Association long and devotedly in several offices and as its president during 1952-53.

His contributions to and his great efforts for secondary education, particularly in the field of junior high-school education, are impressive and enduring. The outcomes of his great works will live on and will always be characterized as noble, purposeful, and extensive.

Attitudes Toward Work - An Educational and Guidance Problem

MRS. JESSIE GREENBAUM
and HARRY C. HENDRICKSON

THROUGH their experience with workers at all levels and in all types of occupations, business and industry have become aware of the importance of the attitude of their employees toward their work and the effect of these attitudes on performance and productivity. If attitudes have been found to be of such major importance for success in the vocational life of individuals, it is clearly one of the duties of the educational system to develop in our young people proper attitudes toward work. What, then, is the role of the school, and particularly that of the guidance department, in giving young people the necessary training and experiences for real preparation in the work world? In order to make a comprehensive analysis of this problem, it is first necessary to understand the psychological principles involved in the formation of attitudes.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Generally, and as J. P. Guilford states, when we speak of the individual's attitude "we mean his tendency to favor or not to favor (as shown objectively by approach-withdrawal behavior) some type of object or situation."¹ Many psychologists and educators suspect, along with Stephens, "that many attitudes are learned without any intention whatever."² However, educators today are concerned with the sum total of the pupil's experience in school and with a whole "new view of learning, by which purposes, feelings, attitudes, ways of life, and personal dedications are seen to be learned as well as subject matter, and by which it is recognized that subject matter is not and cannot be learned without at the same time learning attitudes and ways of life."³

Blair, Jones, and Simpson tell us that "the forces which lead to the development of attitudes are not always clearly discernible. Subtle factors

¹J. P. Guilford, "Creativity" in *Readings in Educational Psychology*, Jerome M. Seldman. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1955. P. 128.

²J. M. Stephens, *Educational Psychology*. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 1951. P. 317.

³"The School's Role in Personality Development"—The Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth—*Readings in Educational Psychology*, Jerome M. Seldman. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1955. Pp. 63-64.

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such as needs of which the person is not aware, or hidden aggressions and wishes may become cornerstones in the building of attitudes."⁴ Caution must be exerted so as *not* to assume that attitudes are direct indications of need. There are many subtleties and complexities standing between the need and the resultant attitude.

Cronbach states that, "Attitude learning is based on an emotional relation between teacher and pupil, and as such contrasts with more purely intellectual aims of the school Attitudes depend heavily upon the learner's feelings about the teacher, and upon the warmth of their association Social attitudes and values are an especially important form of learning which is partly nonintellectual."⁵

Further, social attitudes, which are very important to the field of attitudes utilized in work situations, are changed only in a real and lasting way if one attends "to the total personality structure as well as specific attitudes. Possibly this structure (personality) provides one of the basic conditions under which attitudes, desirable or undesirable, originate, develop, and flourish. It would seem reasonable to expect that, as long as a given personality system persists, clusters of attitudes which are consistent with that system will also persist. Changes in attitudes may then, to a large extent, be dependent upon changes in the total personality."⁶

Maier says that, "Attitudes usually are associated with likes and dislikes, and consequently have an emotional content. Any condition which influences emotion, therefore, is likely to influence certain attitudes Prevalent attitudes in society may be quite ineffective in guiding the attitudes of many individuals until emotions are aroused. Once emotions are stimulated, however, the prevalent attitudes become important factors in determining whether or not a specific emotional reaction will be applied to an individual or to a group of individuals."⁷

With regard to this topic Viteles has this to say, "The fact that attitudes, motives, and conduct are closely interrelated has suggested the possibility that a change in attitudes can induce a change in behavior, by influencing the direction of motivation or through actual modification of 'the original pattern of motivation.'"⁸

COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES IN THE VARIOUS SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVELS

That there is a difference in attitudes at the various socio-economic levels, and consequently a difference in behavior and outlook on voca-

⁴G. M. Blair, R. S. Jones, and R. H. Simpson. *Educational Psychology*. New York: The MacMillan Company. 1954. P. 195.

⁵Lee J. Cronbach. *Educational Psychology*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1954. Pp. 310-311.

⁶Harrison G. Gough, William E. Martin, Dale B. Harris, and Marcia Edwards. "Children's Ethnic Attitudes: Relationship to Certain Personality Factors," *Readings in Educational Psychology*, Jerome M. Seidman. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1955. P. 247.

⁷Norman E. F. Maier. *Psychology in Industry*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1946. P. 45.

⁸Morris S. Viteles. *Motivation and Morale in Industry*. New York: W. W. Norton Company. 1953. P. 74.

tional life, is shown in the studies of Caplow, Maier, Friedmann, and Havighurst. Caplow's observations on the "middle class" pattern of living and working are so keen and penetrating that it is very difficult to omit any of his material. He says, "The term *middle class* is now used to denote the large and expanding section of the urban population who do no manual labor, follow the norms of respectability, are educated beyond the legal minimum, are actively concerned with personal advancement, and are ordinarily able to devote part of their income to display. The high standard of living which characterizes this group is typically founded on occupational income and not on inherited property or privilege.

This middle class maintains a set of cultural values which are its most essential characteristic, and which are capable of being partially accepted under current conditions by manual workers and the owners of productive property. The dominant theme is the emphasis upon personal achievement, and the belief that social rewards are—or should be—distributed in proportion to individual merit, as measured by the performance of occupational tasks.

So long as wealth continues to be the essential measure of social status in our society, and occupational mobility continues at a level which allows the individual a rather wide range of choice in his wealth-getting activities, it is hardly possible to exaggerate the cultural insistence upon competitive behavior which makes itself felt before the growing child has learned to talk."⁹

Maier admits that "Different levels of social status are present in all companies, and certain privileges go with rank."¹⁰

Havighurst and Friedmann, after a series of studies, found that, "Workers at the lower skill and socio-economic levels regard their work more frequently as merely a way to earn a living and in general recognize fewer extra-financial meanings in their work than do workers of higher skill and socio-economic levels."¹¹

All of the research men listed so far found that many of the upper class looked upon their jobs in a sense of "public trust" or "calling" and stressed the extra-economic aspects of their jobs. Many regarded association as an outstanding meaning of their job, but described this association in terms of their relations with the public they served rather than with their professional or business colleagues.

In the hierarchy of occupations some are regarded as more honorable than others, members of occupational groups are divided into bosses of different authority and other members are subordinated to the bosses. Whether the bosses are elected or appointed, some of these acquire their positions by social inheritance or personal achievement.

⁹Theodore Caplow. *The Sociology of Work*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954. Pp. 253, 254.

¹⁰Norman R. F. Maier, *op. cit.*, P. 48.

¹¹Eugene A. Friedmann and Robert J. Havighurst. *The Meaning of Work and Retirement*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954. P. 170.

SCIENTIFIC STUDIES AND SURVEYS

Centers has written that "Nearly three quarters of all business, professional, and white-collar workers identify themselves with the middle or upper classes. An even larger proportion of all manual workers, 79 per cent, identify, on the other hand, with the working and lower classes."¹² A highly significant issue in social and economic behavior, and, from the standpoint of possible class conflict, an all-important one, is the conception of one's own role and class membership.

With all of these people from various social backgrounds going into all kinds of business, industry, and professional work, it is not hard to understand why so many different types of behavior and attitudes have to be dealt with by employers and personnel directors. Their problems on the job have led to numerous studies in an effort to find answers, and the search still goes on.

The famous Western Electric Study at Hawthorne gave us the finding that it was the interviewer who contributed "much to the facilitation of communication both up and down the line"¹³ when poor attitudes and ruffled feelings stood in the way of smooth production. The interviewer's job was found to be one in which he cleared away emotional distortion and exaggeration and found an objective statement for the grievance that lay behind the various complaints.

This shows us then that attitudes can be modified, and, since this is true, what are the various means? In industry, we find that the question is: What is the attitude of the workers toward their work and toward the company? If employers go on the assumption that workers are dumb oxen to be driven, the employers are smothering their workers' innate abilities. If, however, employers go on the assumption that their workers are important as individuals, abilities have an opportunity to flower and a great advantage is opened to all concerned.

From time to time, attitudes need to be changed, and these changes are means to an end. In business and industry, the values and attitudes resulting from specific home and community experiences of individuals may be very important, either in a negative or a positive sense. Guided experiences leading to a true concept of the problem involved can be used to change attitudes. Keeping the individual intelligently informed of the steps that need to be taken in any project, and the reasons why, always proved to be an aid in modifying the worker's attitude toward the work in hand. Active participation in the planning and then having the worker be responsible for his suggestions has been used many times to positive advantage.

Scientific planning to effect changes in attitudes must always include a check or a gauge to measure the worth of the changes. A change in itself

¹²Richard Centers. *The Psychology of Social Classes*. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 1949. P. 85.

¹³Elton Mayo. *The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization*. Andover, Mass: The Andover Press. 1948. P. 85.

does not always signify that it is an improvement. Also, a change that is so drastic that it causes unhappiness or distress for others, must be held in rein so that no disaster occurs. Timing is an important factor to be considered in any change, and, particularly so, when attitudes are involved. For instance, a young person who lives at home with a very conservative family can make himself and the other members very unhappy if a radical change in his thinking and attitudes is effected before he knows how to handle the change in relation to other people. A certain degree of maturity is needed for each kind of change. The change must be appropriate and commensurate with the different factors in the lives of different individuals.

Frustrating situations and experiences lead to a tenseness that thwarts an honest approach to the study of an attitude that must be changed. The setting for this must be the same as the setting for any good learning situation. An easy and accepting atmosphere is necessary when one wants to free the thinking for consideration of things as intangible as attitudes.

ROLE OF THE SCHOOL

Having investigated the psychological principles involved in attitude formation, compared the attitudes of the various socio-economic levels toward work, and discussed the modification of attitudes, let us turn to the role of the school, and, particularly, the role of the school guidance services, in the development of proper attitudes toward work. One of the major contributions of the school is the general routine to which pupils are held and the standards expected of them. Such matters as insistence on good attendance and punctuality as well as courtesy toward teachers and other students are excellent training for the role of a successful worker in the vocational world. It is generally known that very few employees are discharged for inability to perform their work in comparison with the number who are discharged for habitual absence, tardiness, and inability to work harmoniously with others. If the school instills good habits in these areas so that students feel the responsibility for punctuality, attendance, and group harmony in their school life, the feelings and attitudes will be carried over into the job, and the students will be much more likely to become successful workers. Pride in one's school and loyalty to its activities and personnel are the embryonic beginnings of pride in one's future vocational group and loyalty to the members and undertakings thereof. Surely, the school should do as much as possible to stimulate the development of group pride and group loyalty.

In addition, there are many specific things which the school can do to help students develop proper attitudes toward work. One of the first of these is to arouse in students an awareness of the dignity of work and the value and interrelationship of all useful occupations. Here the counselor in interviewing students has a golden opportunity to encourage them to "talk out" any misconceptions they may have. He can work with the subject matter and home-room teachers to inspire them to attack this

problem. A particular item to be clarified will be the false notions which many youth have of the actual and prestige values of white-collar jobs in comparison with semi-skilled or laboring jobs. While much has been done in this area in recent years, much more needs to be done constantly as new groups of pupils come to the school with their preconceived notions derived in most part from the socio-economic level of their family backgrounds.

Teaching students to respect and appreciate skill at whatever level and in whatever activities, it may be evidenced, is another general attitude which the school should consider if it is to graduate students with proper attitudes toward work. When students come to realize that the skill of a telephone linesman in stringing wires and making their myriad connections is just as great a contribution to the welfare of our society as is the operating skill of the highly trained surgeon, then they are beginning to see vocations and professions in their true relationships and are more likely to develop self-satisfaction in their future vocational choices.

As students develop self-satisfaction through successful accomplishment of school tasks, they are laying the groundwork for this same sense of accomplishment that may be a lasting, life-time experience in carefully chosen vocations which give them the opportunity to exercise their individual creative powers to the utmost and reap the rewards of useful work well done. Thus it behooves the school to see that students experience self-satisfaction with a minimum of frustration by catering to individual differences and needs so that each one is given meaningful tasks which interest and challenge him, yet are not beyond his ability to perform successfully. Continual failure in his school tasks may turn any pupil into an embittered personality who, not knowing the satisfactions of success, will be likely to turn the same jaundiced eye toward the tasks of his first job. And of course to begin one's first work experience without enthusiasm and confidence is almost a sure path to lack of productivity, probable discharge, and future frustration.

COUNSELING

In the development of satisfactory attitudes towards work, occupational information is one of the most effective tools of the counselor. Students who have received accurate information are less likely to approach their job with unrealistic attitudes. An example of this might be found in the glamour which students sometimes attach to certain jobs such as stenography. Often girls dream of the exciting young man for whom they will work, visualize themselves in the role of confidante and adviser, and expect to perform highly significant services. When they find themselves doing only routine typing for older married men or women executives and answering monotonous questions over the telephone, they are often greatly dissatisfied and develop attitudes of distaste for the work. Proper occupational information on the exact duties performed by a stenographer gained by reading appropriate occupational literature, visits to offices,

talks with experienced stenographers, and films seen at the proper time under the supervision of the counselor would help to dispel the false glamour of the job and save the girl the frustration and development of unpleasant and perhaps unco-operative attitudes.

Occupational information can also be of service in this area by supplying the student with exact details of the requirements of jobs with respect to training, scholastic standing, and personality traits. The careful counselor will see that his clients acquire such facts as an aid to preventing unrealistic choices in terms of the student's ability and social-economic status. And whenever there is an unrealistic choice, there is the likelihood of unpleasant reactions, dissatisfaction, and poor attitudes.

While there are many obvious techniques that skilled guidance and counseling can employ to assist the prospective worker in his preparation for his first job, there are several worthy of emphasis here. Good counseling is badly needed with reference to employer-employee relationships so that the new worker, particularly if he has never had even part-time work experience, will be prepared to assume his role and to display toward his employer and his work the attitudes which will make the newcomer a desirable employee. Young people need to be reminded of facts which sometimes seem only too obvious to their elders—that the employer expects acceptable work, that he expects compliance with his wishes and the rules of the business, that extra work is necessary in emergencies, that loyalty will be shown to the organization, and that confidential information will be handled discreetly.

In addition, there is the important matter of colleague relationships and the attitudes displayed in this area. Students must be made aware, through proper counseling, that it is their duty to work harmoniously with the group in which they find themselves. They must be led to realize that in every group of workers there will be those whom they may not admire and those who may be trouble-makers. Students need to be given techniques for courteous handling of unpleasant situations and to be made aware of the importance of fitting into the group. Talks by employers who emphasize this aspect of attitudes toward work may do much to prepare the student while he is still in school. Many counselors have found this a valuable technique to use.

Development of effective attitudes towards work has often resulted from school-work programs into which the students may have been guided by the counselor. While as yet no scientific evidence has been published which conclusively proves the value of school-work programs, most school systems which have initiated such programs are continuing and expanding them. The values of such experiences from the viewpoint of attitude development probably lie in the supervision, counseling, and follow-up which the students receive prior to beginning their jobs and while they are engaged in them. The students have an opportunity to experience the realities of the work world before they have had to make a final decision regarding choice of vocation and further schooling. Sometimes

they may learn that they are unsuited to certain types of vocations and make changes in their plans. These changes may result in happier, better adjusted future workers who display attitudes of satisfaction and success. The co-ordinator or counselor who supervises the work experience will have the dual advantage of observing the student at work and of obtaining the rating and reaction of the employer. This gives him an opportunity to do a very effective job of counseling the student on poor attitudes that the employer may have reported or which the counselor may have observed himself.

And when the student has left school and is ready for a full-time job, the counselors in the school placement service have the opportunity for additional counseling as a result of what they know about the individual from his cumulative record and what they know of the job and the organization where they are placing the student. Once more there is an opportunity for further guidance in attitude development and through regular follow-up to see how well the new worker is adjusting after six months and again at the end of a year on the job.

CONCLUSION

Because there is much printed material on recent employee-attitude surveys, this paper would be incomplete if it did not include a short description of at least one major survey. Some studies have been made to discover attitudes of men in unions and the real reasons for their joining a union. Most frequently mentioned reasons for joining were family background, earlier work experience, and personal experiences within the plant. Informal group pressures played a large role in the decision of the men to join the union. Membership in the union was, in many instances, a matter of social expediency, rather than the outcome of a logical analysis of the situation. An attitude of resentment was shown to exist by the union members toward their non-union fellow employees. The members felt themselves justified in bringing pressure to bear on the nonconformists. Biasing influences and attitudes were the reasons for joining and not in order to get higher wages!

Another article makes several contributions that are important in the areas discussed in this paper. In Danskin's "Occupational Sociology in Occupational Exploration,"¹⁴ we find that he is concerned with matching an individual's attitudes and way of life with the way of life of an occupation as an approach to vocational counseling. With this sociological element in counseling, we would get much closer to the important aspects of jobs than was ever possible in the traditional counseling approach. It is hoped that this may result in improved attitudes and increased satisfactions on the job.

Why have we felt that attitudes in relation to one's job is such an important matter? Seidman (J. M.) and G. Watson have said, "Orientation

¹⁴David Danskin, "Occupational Sociology in Occupational Exploration," *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*, November 1955, Pp. 124-126.

to everyday life situations is vitally affected by the degree of satisfaction derived from one's job and the general attitude toward the work experience."¹⁵ Achieving happiness and contentment in our way of living is a matter of concern for every individual, and if in our philosophical approach to our particular job we can see it "as it affects what one does, whom one knows, and often, how one thinks", we can make our jobs major reinforcements for a happier way of life.

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¹⁵Jerome M. Seidman and Goodwin Watson, "Satisfactions in Work," *The Adolescent—A Book of Readings*. 1953. New York: Dryden Press, P. 609.

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WATCH FOR FURTHER ANNOUNCEMENTS

Home-Room and Group Guidance

IVAN BUTTERWORTH

DO YOU wish to enjoy a profitable experience and one that is not only exhilarating to yourself but to the participants and listeners as well? Try the panel idea of group guidance for your home room or student body. In addition, this type of guidance discussion can be used effectively for an assembly or student council meeting. Too, we have found that such programs are well received by our Parent-Teacher Association and fill an educational need for parents as well as for students. High-school pupils are most interested in discussions pertaining to teenagers and their immediate problems. We have tried using subjects of such nature and have planned a series of panels lasting for 20 or 30 minutes. One will readily observe that pupils are most anxious to be members of panels, and there is never a lack of volunteers. Every student likes to see his peers participate and to see how they react, especially to interesting and pressing adolescent problems.

During the past few years we have been trying to conduct suitable home-room programs each Tuesday during the activity period. One of the features has been an attempt to motivate group guidance. These programs have varied in success in keeping with the interest of the home-room teacher and her enthusiasm towards planning them. During the past year, we have continued the home-room idea; however, we have given more and more attention to our group guidance by having this program appear before the entire student body of our high school.

As motivators for such programs, the material found in the series of books published about the adolescent and his problems by the National Forum have proven unusually valuable. Each of the following books with teacher manuals and guides serve as an abundant reservoir of topics and ideas. The titles of this series of books are: *About Growing Up; Being Teen Aged; High School Life; Discovering Myself; Planning My Future; and Toward Adult Living*. Each of these devotes itself to a certain high-school grade or age group. In addition, such a text as *Being Teen Aged* has five units devoted to the development of youngsters. Furthermore, attractive short movies are usually available from the state film library that provide excellent material. From them often comes the ideas that lead to questions of value for panel discussions. Titles of such movies as are listed under the heading of guidance and found of value—Personal, Social, Educational, Vocational, etc.—are: *Act Your Age, Am I Trustworthy?, Are You a Good Citizen?, Are You Popular?, Beginning To Date, The Bully, Cheating, Control Your Emotions, Date Etiquette, Dating Do's and Don'ts, Developing Friendships, Developing Leadership, Developing*

Ivan Butterworth is Principal of the Dinwiddie High School in Dinwiddie, Virginia.

Self-reliance, Dinning Together, Feeling Left Out, Friendship Begins at Home, Going Steady, Good Sportsmanship, How Friendly Are You?, Improve Your Personality, Introductions, Mind Your Manners, More Dates for Kay, Other People's Property, The Outsider, Overcoming Worry, Right or Wrong, Sharing Work at Home, Shy Guy, Team Work, What Is Conscience?, What To Do on a Date, Who's Boss?, Why We Respect the Law, You and Your Family, You and Your Friends, You and Your Parents, Your Thrift Habits, How To Study, Showoff, Finding Your Life Work, and Personal Qualities for Job Success.

In planning for panels as a part of group guidance, often a committee of students will submit a list of suitable topics. Select topics from this list and show a movie in advance of the panel, treating the topic or one similar, or use the material in the National Forum books to set the stage; out of such introductions the ideas for the panel are gotten. However, prepared lists of topics or use of movies or the texts, are not necessary to every proposed or successful panel. Enthusiastic pupils or the teacher can suggest an interesting topic and arrange to handle it on occasion as successfully as though the supplementary materials were used. Some of our best have been the result of this approach. In addition, the proper motivation is also created by those pupils who wish to serve on the panel. The home-room teacher in charge can arrange for four or more volunteer members of the panel. If the panel members have questions they wish discussed, these can be assigned to individuals on the panel who will be called upon by the moderator for discussion. We have found that a teacher who has interest in guidance makes the best moderators although some students possess this ability. Occasionally, the principal can serve as panel moderator on topics of interest to the student body.

Sometimes pupils and moderators claim they do not have time enough to prepare for a panel. This excuse can be overcome readily by the moderator thinking over the topic and selecting ten or fifteen questions of interest about the topic under discussion. Then she may call a meeting of the panel members and read the list of questions and ask for volunteers on each. The panel members prepare their reactions to the questions assigned and are ready when these come before the panel. It should be emphasized that panel members should not memorize their contributions nor read them since the contributions mean more if they are presented in an extemporaneous manner. Usually panels, composed of different members, can be used at least monthly or bi-monthly; but where proper planning has been done, they can be used as programs as often as desired.

We seat our panel around a table, or on the auditorium stage for student body programs. We use a microphone amplifier so that everyone in the audience can hear easily. This participation by panel members is most valuable since it helps develop poise, self-confidence, and aids each to become more acclimated in appearing before groups. This also provides, to those who serve, a special means of recognition from their fellow

students. At the end of each panel, other pupils or faculty members in the audience may present questions or challenge some of the remarks made on the panel. Of course, a summary by the moderator is beneficial and is usually made. We have found our pupils to be extremely interested in these programs. They are most attentive and anxious to attend, and they profit from the information presented. The results are often reflected in the student body. These panels serve as a source of information to those who are especially in need, or, to one who is anxious to clear his or her thinking on a pressing adolescent problem.

It has been gratifying to observe the amazing quality of ideas and contributions made by student panel members—their truthfulness,—frankness,—excellent judgment,—and sensible solutions. On every occasion the manner in which each member has stood for the right and honorable ideals and ideas is most consoling to those adults who have probably been thinking our youth is not what it should be. Youth still stands for the best in behavior and etiquette. Those few who do not are usually maladjusted or frustrated. If you want a frank discussion and wise contributions on present youth problems, use the educational idea of the student panel.

However, before expecting the above, let me again emphasize that we have an obligation. The secret of an interesting and successful group guidance program is anchored to the necessary planning, interest, and enthusiasm of the teacher. Planning is one of the main keys to success in any educational activity and, without it, failure is bound to result. In group guidance or home-room activities this is no exception.

During the past year and especially this spring, the list of panel topics we discussed and from which the students responded most wholeheartedly were:

1. Cheating—Causes and Remedies
2. Patterns for Dating
3. Use of the Family Car
4. Qualities Boys Like and Dislike in Girls
5. Qualities Girls Like and Dislike in Boys
6. Advantages and Disadvantages of Extracurricular Activities
7. Homework
8. Honesty
9. School Spirit
10. Good School Manners—Their Importance
11. Sportsmanship at Games
12. Gossip?—Why?
13. Hot Rod Drivers
14. Things We Like To Have in Classroom Instruction
15. How To Study
16. Co-operation
17. Getting Ready for Examinations
18. Guidance Services We Would Like
19. How Much Parental Control Should the Teenager Have?
20. To Go Steady or Not?
21. Causes of Class Failures and Their Remedy
22. What Is Good Citizenship?

The Dress-Right Program in the Buffalo Public Schools

JOSEPH MANCH

When Dr. Manch first presented the idea of a Dress-Up Campaign to the Council, the delegates were immediately impressed with the prospects. Here, the high-school students saw a valuable opportunity to participate in a project that would visibly affect their fellow students and themselves. The original enthusiasm was displayed throughout the committee sessions in which the final standards were drafted. This vigor also was exhibited in promoting the standards in the high schools. All the students connected with the program benefited, I believe, from this experience because they had the opportunity to work with students from all sections of the city to accomplish something worth while.—Caesar Naples, President, Inter-High School Student Council, Buffalo Public Schools, Buffalo, New York.

ONE of the difficulties which school administrators and teachers have faced in the last few years relates to fads and fancies of dress among teenagers. Many teachers have felt that the way in which boys and girls dress is frequently reflected in their behavior. This phenomenon has been observed by members of the central office staff of the Buffalo public schools in connection with the holding of hearings for school delinquents who were under suspension from school for serious acts of misconduct. Many of these young people, it was observed, were often dressed in an extremely careless, sloppy manner or in rather bizarre fashion. As a matter of fact, certain styles of dress at both extremes have become identified with hoodlumism in the minds of police, educators, and citizens generally.

It seemed to the writer desirable to attempt to improve the standards of dress of teenagers in our community and, by so doing, to affect favorably their conduct in and out of school. It was obvious that, as every good teacher knows, adolescents are generally much more prone to be impressed by the opinions of their peers than by the mandates of their elders, and that in most cases they more readily accept voluntarily the norms established by leaders in their own group. It was further evident that the vast majority of the boys and girls in our schools were essentially sound and upright in their attitudes and that they would welcome an opportunity to assume responsibility for solving their own problems.

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It was with these ideas in mind that, in October 1955, the writer asked the Inter-High School Student Council, which represents all fourteen of the public high schools of Buffalo, to consider as a project for the school year 1955-56 the development of a series of recommendations for appropriate dress in high school. After considerable discussion of the merits of such a project, the Council accepted the suggestion with great enthusiasm. The president, Caesar Naples, a seventeen year old Hutchinson-Central Technical High School senior, appointed a committee of fourteen members, one from each of the high schools, to study the problem and to prepare a series of recommendations for the Council's approval. After much study, the proposals of the committee were presented, in November 1955, at a regular meeting of the full Council, and, after thoughtful discussion, they were accepted by an overwhelming majority of the members.

The recommendations were then submitted for reaction to the high-school principals. They felt that the proposals had been carefully drawn and indicated they would be pleased to see these standards of dress maintained in their schools. After some editorial assistance and guidance, the recommendations were printed for distribution to all schools in the following form:

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE INTER HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENT COUNCIL
FOR APPROPRIATE DRESS OF STUDENTS IN HIGH SCHOOL

Boys

Academic High Schools and Hutchinson-Technical High School

Recommended

1. Dress shirt and tie or conservative sport shirt and tie with suit jacket, sport coat, or sweater
2. Standard trousers or khakis; clean and neatly pressed
3. Shoes, clean and polished; white bucks acceptable

Not Recommended

1. Dungarees or soiled, unpressed khakis
2. T-shirts, sweat shirts
3. Extreme styles or shoes, including hobnail or "motorcycle boots"

Vocational High Schools

Recommended

1. Shirt and tie or sport shirt and tie
2. Sport shirt with sweater or jacket
3. Standard trousers or khakis; clean and neatly pressed
4. Shoes, clean and polished; white bucks acceptable

Not Recommended

1. Dungarees or soiled, unpressed khakis
2. T-shirts, sweat shirts
3. Extreme styles of shoes, including hobnail or "motorcycle boots"

NOTE: The apparel recommended for boys should be worn in standard fashion with shirts tucked in and buttoned, and ties tied at the neck.

Standard of dress for boys, while in school shops or laboratories, should be determined by the school.

GIRLS

Academic and Vocational High Schools

Recommended

1. Blouses, sweaters, blouse and sweater, jacket with blouse or sweater
2. Skirts, jumpers, suits, or conservative dresses
3. Shoes appropriate to the rest of the costume

Not Recommended

1. V-neck sweaters without blouse
2. Bermuda shorts, kilts, party-type dresses, slacks of any kind
3. Ornate jewelry
4. T-shirts, sweat shirts

NOTE: All recommended wear for girls should fit appropriately and modestly. Standard of dress for girls, while in school shops or laboratories, should be determined by the school.

Copies of these recommendations were sent to the high schools in sufficient quantity so that one might be placed on the bulletin board of every home room. In addition, two or three copies were sent to every elementary school for the information of the principal and staff. Attached to the copies which were sent to the high schools was a memorandum which included this paragraph:

As you know, these recommendations are the result of very careful consideration by representatives from all high schools. In suggesting these standards to their fellow students, the members of the Council are attempting to be helpful, and they are not, in any sense, intimating that they have any authority to mandate the kind of clothing which boys and girls should wear.

There was an immediately good response to these recommendations both among the students and in the public press. Several high schools adopted the proposals after action by their own student councils. Some of the publicity which appeared in the local press was extremely helpful. For example, Burgard Vocational High School installed a full-length mirror at the head of a stairway where most pupils at one time or another during the day had to pass. Above the mirror was printed this inscription: "Look!" This is you. Are you satisfied?" *The Buffalo Evening News* published a picture of a boy before this mirror with a brief comment under the picture. Both local newspapers also printed commendatory editorials on the action taken by the Inter-High School Student Council.

Many of the schools have conducted special student-sponsored assembly programs in which appropriate dress has been demonstrated and encouraged. Some students were presented attired in undesirable fashion in contrast with others dressed in accordance with the recommendations. The comparison has made an effective impression on the students.

In the early stages of the program, a local newspaper reporter conducted an informal survey of teenage opinion in regard to proper dress in high

school. Following are a few of the comments made by the students interviewed:

"When you look better, you feel better."

"It's good preparation for business."

"When you wear a tie and a business shirt, you feel more like studying and less like fooling around."

As the program developed in the high schools, we began to see indications of a desire on the part of elementary-school pupils to follow their high-school brothers and sisters in the improvement of standards of dress, and many principals, teachers, and others have commented on what appears to be a community-wide interest in dressing up for school.

It seems important to note that throughout the campaign, the *voluntary* nature of the program has been emphasized. We have felt that, if the recommendations are to be accepted with the best possible chance for success, the impetus must come from the students themselves with the encouragement and guidance of principals, teachers, and parents. To date this has happened, as one student body after another, through its student council organization, has indicated that the recommendations are desirable and should be accepted by all students.

At the time of writing, the program has been in effect for about five months. It is, of course, too early to know just what effect improved standards of dress will ultimately have on the prevention of hoodlumism and delinquency. However, judging from some of the statements which have already been made by school personnel and lay citizens who have been observing the program in action, we are encouraged to hope that, as teenagers continue to improve their habits of dress in school, there will be a substantial improvement in their general conduct.

What is happening in Buffalo in connection with this dress-up campaign has far more significance, we feel, than the actual improvement of dress. It gives ample proof that young people can be trusted to deal with their own problems intelligently, realistically, and forcefully if they are given half a chance. We know that teenagers generally want to do the right thing if they are encouraged to exercise initiative and to think for themselves, with adult help and encouragement available to them when they want it and need it. In this sense, our dress-up program in Buffalo, because it is student sponsored, is proving to be a very effective instrument in training for responsible citizenship.

An Enriched Program in World History

PATRICK J. MALLOY

AN ABILITY class in the Clarkstown Central High School in world history was given on June 4, 1956, the *Standardized Test in World History*, Form Z, published by the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. The median IQ of the group was 120 as tested on the Otis Gamma Test on June 8, 1956. Thirty pupils took the test in world history. Sixteen members of that class scored in the 90th national percentile or higher. A percentile tabulation of the entire class follows:

99th Percentile	23% of the group
95th Percentile	13% of the group
90th Percentile	16% of the group
85th Percentile	3% of the group
80th Percentile	6% of the group
75th Percentile	6% of the group
70th Percentile	6% of the group
65th Percentile	3% of the group
60th Percentile	3% of the group
55th Percentile	3% of the group
45th Percentile	10% of the group
40th Percentile	3% of the group
35th Percentile	3% of the group

The fact that 23% of the group scored in the 99th percentile, 13% in the 95th percentile, 16% in the 90th percentile, and, finally that 82% of the group scored in the 50th percentile or higher, appears to be significant. The Guidance Office of the school screened the entire sophomore class last summer. Pupils were admitted to the class on the basis of IQ, recommendation of faculty members, and on past scholastic performance as measured by school grades and the junior high-school regents' record. Because of scheduling difficulties, a few members of the class were of a somewhat lower academic caliber than the criterion established for admittance. It is the opinion of the teacher that the guidance office did an especially good job in locating the potentially talented.

The teacher saw as the fundamental goal of this course an understanding and an appreciation of the world as it is presently constituted. All of the objectives of the New York State Syllabus in world history were adhered to. A special feature of the class was emphasis on relationships in history. It was the hypothesis of the teacher that, if students are really to

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understand twentieth century Germany, stress must be given to nineteenth century Germany when Otto von Bismarck unified the German states with his policy of "blood and iron," or more concisely stated "might makes right." If the students clearly recognize that Germany achieved world prominence in the nineteenth century through aggression, then the rise of an Adolph Hitler in the twentieth century takes on a new reality. But the relationship of the past to the present and its application *must be specifically taught*. When students are brought to realize that in the past Germany has provided a fertile environment for dictatorship, then the present prospects for democracy in Germany will be viewed in a more realistic light by the students. *This relationship must be taught.*

Capable students in a high-school history program can be taught that the cultural environment in a given country shapes the political tradition of that nation. Likewise, if the student is to understand the instability of the French government of today, then the many social and political convulsions of eighteenth and nineteenth century France must be taught in light of the present. Following these upheavals, "strong men" with dictatorial ambitions established themselves in the French government. It is understandable then why the French people today are reluctant to give to any French executive power similar to that given to the President of the United States. However, this specific relationship *must be taught*. A chronological approach to history is *insufficient* to the successful teaching of this relationship. After the topic has been taught chronologically, then it is imperative to begin with the present and use the facts of the past to show how our world has become what it is. Such an approach makes world history real citizenship education.

Other major powers in world history received similar treatment, always with the emphasis on historical relationships. Two instances are cited to give the reader a picture of the approach that was used throughout the entire course. The question, "How was this course taught?" naturally follows. The course was so arranged so that one period each week was devoted to specific library work. Definite and specific assignments were made in a *wide* variety of books. Many of the books used were more properly college sources. These included, to mention but a few, C. J. H. Hayes, *Essays on Nationalism*; G. M. Trevelyan, *Social History of England*, and his biographical studies on *Garibaldi* and *Cavour*, and A. Toynbee's *Study of History*. Assignments in the collateral reading program were carefully selected when possible. It was felt that, if the student was involved in a work, he would withdraw the book from the library and read it in its entirety. This frequently happened. This was the method that was used to introduce these students to the world of books.¹

¹For this phase of the program, the teacher is indebted to the book, *Teaching of History: In the Elementary and Secondary Schools with Application to Allied Studies*, by Henry Johnson (MacMillan, 1940). Johnson's chapter, "The Selection and Management of Collateral Reading," forms the basis for this phase of the program. The teacher of this course has been strongly conditioned by Johnson's approach to the teaching of history and would like to acknowledge a special debt to this author.

The librarian at Clarkstown Central High School gave invaluable assistance to the teacher and the class. Any volume that was desired for this course and was not in our library was obtained, usually within a week's time, from the New York State Library. The librarian also made a major contribution to the class by conducting sessions throughout the year in research techniques. It is the very strong opinion of the teacher that these students were taught and then were given considerable practice in the use of a functioning library, so that they have acquired a valuable skill, the use of a library.

The teacher, by observing these students in study halls and elsewhere when they were preparing their lessons, felt that attention should be devoted to how to study. The teacher wrote a thirty-page pamphlet which the school published, explaining study techniques, the atmosphere and environment necessary for successful and efficient study. Approximately one week of class time was devoted to study techniques in which this pamphlet was used.

A serious consideration throughout the program was this: Here was a class of potentially gifted students. How might their potential be directed so that they might work with maximum efficiency?²⁹ One solution was the development of committees. The committee had the responsibility of interpreting the historical data that they had used in the library and elsewhere. A joint written report was required of each committee. These reports were graded on the basis of the sources used and the interpretation given. With the first reports, the teacher made only positive comments. He wrote comments such as, "Hayes' book, *Essays on Nationalism*, or Hans Kohn's book, *The Idea of National Interest*, would help." These comments appeared to have a motivating effect. A competition between the teacher and the students developed. Students began to turn in committee reports that were extremely complete and there was evidence of thorough exploration of the topic. Gradually, the teacher found it increasingly difficult to cite sources because they were using all of the sources available.

While these committees were in session, the teacher was able to move from committee to committee, asking pertinent questions that focused on interpretation and the relationship of the past to the present. Time was made available for these students to think a problem through. A textbook served as a skeleton reference for the course. This textbook was really a point of departure. Work in the committees focused on the *using of factual information* rather than questions of fact.

While this course did not put greatest emphasis on factual knowledge, testing devices were systematically used during the year to be certain that

²⁹The teacher was enrolled in Clarkstown's in-service course, *The Gifted Child*, by A. H. Passow. He was particularly impressed and attracted to the techniques that Dr. P. Brandwein, guest lecturer, had developed in a science program at the Forest Hills High School. Dr. Brandwein stressed that one must permit ability people to pursue advanced projects of interest to them under the guidance of the teacher. Brandwein insisted that, "You must give these students time to think." This phase of the science program at Forest Hills was adapted to the teaching of world history in Clarkstown.

the facts were being learned.³ This approach, where greatest emphasis was placed on relationships and the pursuit of ideas, rather than factual knowledge, was, it appears, a clear break with the educational past of these students. The lack of complete concentration on factual knowledge was a matter of serious concern to these students. The teacher found it necessary to reassure these students from time to time that they did have an excellent command of the facts. This was most effectively done by the use of quizzes which tested factual knowledge.

This teacher has noted that practicing teachers have voiced concern that factual material will not be learned unless it is specifically taught and emphasized. The test given to this class on June 4, 1956, was largely a measure of factual knowledge. The results of the test appear to indicate that this class had a thorough knowledge of the facts. This teacher was unable to locate a published test that would measure relationships and interpretation to the degree that they are measured on the College Board examination. This record would seemingly indicate that ability students do learn the facts in the pursuit of ideas.

The record of this class, as measured by the test which was standardized nationally, appears to be good. This is what happens when the bottom of a class is removed and a program is developed for ability people. The teacher strongly feels that the 52% who ranked in the 90th percentile or higher did so because of the program. Such a program is imperative if the needs of ability people are to be met. It has been the experience of this teacher in the usual class, that a majority of his and the class' time is devoted to fundamental knowledge for the average to the bottom of the class. In this class, 16% of the class scored below the 50th percentile. These students were industrious and were interested. It is the opinion of the teacher that the program did not meet the specific needs of this group and these people could more expeditiously be handled in another group.

The experience of the teacher with this group was the most interesting experience that he has had since he has been in the field of education. Many of the students in this class have been in other classes in former years. However, in the past, because the class was composed of students ranking from outstanding ability to poor ability, he was unable to devise a program for the able in the framework of the usual class. For the first time in the career of this teacher he felt that the program was challenging and offered an incentive to the talented.

Last year, in another world history class, this teacher was asked, "Why did an early civilization develop in Egypt and not somewhere else?" When the question was asked the teacher made a decision. This was a complex question. At most not more than five or six students could have followed the explanation. The teacher asked the student to see him later. With questions of this sort and with the ability class that I have had, we could

³Dr. Brandwein, the science man from Forest Hills, contended that ability students will gain their facts in the pursuit of ideas.

thoroughly discuss this matter. These students thrived on questions of this sort. Students were given an opportunity to think.

It has been noted that the College Board examinations and the New York State Regents Scholarship examinations attach considerable value to the area of interpretation. Historical relationships are given close scrutiny. In the usual program it is virtually impossible to give the attention and emphasis to relationships and historical interpretation that they should have. A program such as the one described here is a possible answer. Since the intellectually able have different intellectual needs than the less able, a special program appears to be warranted.

In the program as it was carried out at Clarkstown, I see several results. It presented a challenge to the ability students. They gave every indication that they preferred this approach. They learned that the realm of history extends beyond the confines of a textbook. They were exposed to a method whereby responsibility to a very large degree was transferred from the teacher to the student. Especially in the unit on how to study they learned something about themselves and how they can use the human mechanism to its best advantage. They found in the area of history, at least, that there are conflicting views; there is no official word in history. And, finally, by using the past to explain the present, they have become acquainted with the realities of modern world society, in which unbelievably fast communication puts the United States in the forefront of world happenings.

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Modern Living

MARTHA J. MORROW

IN AN effort to orient, better, our high-school students and to help them to understand more clearly their relation to society and to articulate, more closely, their courses of study with their needs, the administration, faculty, and student body of Woodbridge High School took stock, so to speak. This self-survey revealed some very interesting and valuable information about ourselves and our pupil activity programs; our curriculum and course offerings and types of instruction; our school philosophy and objectives in the light of our pupil and community needs. It was revealed to us that, while majority rule has long been a fundamental precept of our American way of life and while, to provide functional education for this majority has been equally long a fundamental precept of our American school system (of which Woodbridge High School is no exception), we were not catering actually to the majority; there was much that we could do toward improving the education we were offering the majority of our young people.

Within the memory of all of us, high-school enrollments had increased markedly. Time was when approximately ten per cent of the youth of high-school age went to high school. Today, approximately eighty per cent of our young people enter high school but rarely do more than forty-five per cent remain to be graduated. (Again Woodbridge High School is no exception.) Why was it that high school was not able to hold the majority of our young people?

Time was when the public high school was primarily a place for boys and girls to prepare for entering institutions of higher learning. (This, too, was true of Woodbridge High School.) But our self-survey revealed that only a minority of our current student body was planning to enter college; that the remaining number, the majority of our young people, were just tagging along and would eventually earn their living in those occupational pursuits for which no specific training, prior to initial employment, was necessary. For the majority of our student body, our high school was just a place to profit from during the time when they were not yet acceptable to industry.

Follow-up of our young people who had entered college assured us that our course offerings had done the required job of preparing them for their needs. Preparation for those planning to enter the skilled trades

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was being adequately supplied at the Middlesex County Vocational Schools. Furthermore, the specific skills of most occupations can be learned only on the job. But what of the remaining majority of our young people who are interested neither in college preparation nor technical training? What were we offering them as an adequate preparation to meet their needs; what were we offering that vast majority for whom preparation for college or training for the skilled trades is neither feasible nor suitable?

If the ideal of "Education for All American Youth" were to be attained, if functional education were to be offered, we would have to reset our goals so as to give our students the education and preparation for the future for which each, as an individual, is best fitted. It was obvious, thus, that we would have to revise our curriculum if we were to meet best the needs of all the youth. If the education to be obtained at Woodbridge High School were to be looked upon as a preparation for citizenship and life, rather than for the monetary return which comes from it, we would first have to determine what were the needs of our young people for their daily living and then gear our curriculum revision to this.

Faculty committees went into action. Further surveys were executed; findings studied; philosophies weighed; objectives outlined. All this lengthy and time consuming process may be summarized for the sake of the present instant as follows:

As a school system, we needed to shift our emphasis from student evaluation by a negative process of selecting and eliminating to a positive one of discovering and developing whatever latent talent a student might possess. For, did not education, (the task before us) coming from the Latin "educō" mean not only "to train" but also "to bring forth" and "to draw out," and not to "cram into" as we had been wont to interpret!

As educators, we need to give more emphasis to guiding the growth, development, and behavior of our students. We needed to learn, to understand, to respect, and to work with all types of youth if all types of youth were to be served. We needed to realize that today's student comes to us from a vastly different background from that of the students of yesteryear. Today's student comes to us from a world of radio and television; of the pulp magazines and startling advertising format; a world of the automobile and motion picture; a world of speed and dazzling entertaining techniques. We needed to realize that all these mass media provide a learning environment which is attractive, which lives; that we are in competition with all this and that our classroom techniques were not as effective as the techniques used outside the classroom. We needed to realize that school is a tough job for the non-college-bound, non-skilled-trades-headed group, the so-called neglected sixty per cent, for they were not interested in the abstract. We needed to realize that they have difficulty in seeing how school fits their needs; we needed to realize that they want self-realization from their education; and they need to develop whatever capacities they have which will be useful to them in just living—

useful to them for adjustment to whatever spot in life they find themselves implanted or surplanted.

As a school system we needed to determine, specifically, just what it was that our young people needed in order best to equip them for their problems of everyday living. Further study, conference, and survey brought to light the following conclusions:

We had been beset on all sides by reports of rejections of draftees during the last war for health and education reasons. Could we not conclude then that schools should offer more and better training in health and healthful living?

The rising incidence of unsocial behavior, ethical delinquency, if you please, made clear the need of our young people for more adequate training in the principles of everyday ethics and responsible citizenship.

The rising incidence of divorce plus the startling increase of all the forces which pull centrifugally from the home bespoke the need of young people for training to equip them better to establish and maintain good homes and happy families.

Statistics, pointing to the fact that inability to get along with others more frequently causes workers to lose their jobs than does lack of vocational skill, made clear to us the need for more guidance in training for better relationships with employers and fellow workers; the need for acquisition of the ethical attitude of giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.

The low level of consumer skills evidenced by the questionable quality of radio programs and motion pictures as well as advertisements and advertising mediums gave us confidence to continue and enlarge upon a course which we were currently offering in consumer economics.

No survey or outside reports were necessary to impress upon us the deplorable fact that many of our young people were deficient in both the basic and communication skills, for rare was the day when someone of us failed to bemoan the fact that "these kids can't read"; "these kids can't spell"; "these kids can't do simple math"; "these kids don't even speak English" *etc., etc.* All of us were well aware that subject matter, the tools of learning, the basic skills were vitally important. We also realized that they were not the only skills a pupil needs. And we realized that, while we needed to foster resourcefulness and originality within our students and to encourage their self-expression and self-adjustment, there are times when these are out of place. There is no room for originality in a spelling lesson nor in the multiplication table. And before there can be a good speller or a good mathematician, there must first be a good person. Our young people needed not only to be taught the basic skills and how to use them; but also how to think for themselves, how to live, how to be and to want to be better people—for people are important.

Students evidenced need for more experiences not only in the acquisition and critical examination of facts and ideas but also in learning how to give effect to their conclusions. They needed to find out how to mold

public opinion. They needed to know, also, how to translate public opinion into government action. They needed to know who the policy making officials are in their community, state, and nation; how to exert pressure ethically on such officials.

Having defined thus the needs of our young people and the needs of our school system in the light thereof, there remained for us naught but to revise our curriculum and course offerings so as best to meet these needs. It was obvious that since some revision was needed in all departments, it would have to take place on a school-wide basis. However, reflection upon the above listed needs of our young people made it clear that said needs fell mainly within the category of human relations. Thus it became equally clear that the social science department should bear much of the responsibility for this social education.

To facilitate the needed revisions there evolved, on a school-wide basis, a course of study called "Social Scientific" geared to the needs of the neglected sixty per cent with a social science department offering called Modern Living—as the core course thereof. Modern Living I would be required at freshman level of all high-school entrants. Modern Living II, III, and IV, at sophomore, junior, and senior levels, respectively, would be required of those pursuing the Social Scientific curriculum, and open as an elective to anyone. We were careful to set up this core course not as a social studies course, nor in lieu of any of the history courses being offered (World, U. N. I., and U. N. II), but in addition to them, for pursuit of history *per se* is vital for the acquisition of facts. Facts are what we think with; and, since one of the determined needs of our young people is the ability to think for themselves, we must ever guard against turning out young people who are eager to discuss a subject for which they have no background or roots or proof, who failed to be interested in or see the need for same, and who, while admiringly alert, would be opinionated—and so to speak, "half-baked."

Specifically the objectives of Modern Living I aim to help pupils to be prepared better for living in their communities by providing them with experiences which will enable them to participate constructively in the affairs of their communities. The group life of the school offers many opportunities in life-like learning. Young people cannot be expected to fulfill their duties to their community, state, and nation without some preparation for taking an active part. Knowledge alone is not enough. Intelligent action is essential in a democracy. Directed to these ends are units in School Orientation, Living with Yourself and Others, Living in a Democratic Society, and Living in Today's World.

In surveying the needs of Woodbridge students which preceded the writing of these courses of study, two major areas were outstanding—earning money and managing it. The problem of earning a living is becoming more complex as our labor force becomes more and more specialized. Concurrent with the problem of getting a job, runs the problem of spending one's money wisely. It is to enable our students to

solve these problems, more adequately than the course, *Modern Living II*, has been set up.

This course is divided into two major sections. The first deals with occupational information. The second deals with personal finance. It is an inescapable fact that the greater portion of one's life after leaving school will be spent on the job. Surveys of employing agencies reveal that high-school graduates have little knowledge of the realities of work situations. They don't know what type of work they want, what is available, what they have to offer, or how to go about getting the job for which they are best suited. As the vast majority of our Woodbridge students do not go on to further training, it is up to us to see that this situation is remedied. The students for whom this course is intended are those who go directly from school to work. The areas covered give the pupil information, skills, and attitudes which will make his problem of work adjustment easier.

The materials covered in the first section of *Modern Living II* give the pupil information which will enable him to solve the problem of making a living more wisely. After he has a job—then what? The material of the second section of the course attempts to give the pupil information which will be of value to him in deciding what to do with his money once he has earned it.

Modern Living III proceeds from the premise that the choice of a life philosophy and a life mate are two of the most important decisions which an individual is called upon to make during his lifetime. Each choice has an important bearing on the other. Each exerts a great influence on the happiness and well-being of the individual. Since young people cannot wait until middle life to decide upon these matters, since they have to make them at a time when they lack the maturity and judgment which they will have acquired later, they need guidance to make use of the findings which have grown out of the experiences of mature people.

Industrial analyses estimate that at least eighty per cent of the people who lose their jobs do so because of emotional maladjustments rather than lack of ability to do the job. The same cause operates in many cases of broken homes and personal frustrations. Because of these conditions, it is important to acquaint young people with the principles which mental hygiene and applied psychology teach concerning satisfactory emotional adjustment. Application of these principles to one's relationship to one's family, one's schoolmates, one's job, and one's community can thus be emphasized.

The adolescent needs information concerning the dynamics of human nature and the requirements of the society in which he lives. He needs to be aware of his own characteristics and potentialities, his interests and abilities, his skills, limitations and patterns of personality. He needs to be aware of his need to be open-minded and eager for materials and methods which will give him greater opportunity for finer self-development, for

more wholesome and effective living, for more happiness in his present family relationships, for more satisfactions and success in establishing his own home, for training in the highest type of citizenship and community service. To this end, the course in Modern Living III is directed.

Specifically the work in Modern Living III is divided into three parts. Because the best preparation for family living and/or human relations is the building of an emotionally mature person, the first unit of this course, "Understanding Yourself as an Individual," deals with a survey of the nature of individual differences; the basis and development of personality; and the principles of mental hygiene. These principles are basic to the succeeding units of the course. In the second unit, "Understanding Yourself as a Member of Society," social institutions and social and economic problems of our present civilization are considered with particular emphasis placed on those institutions and problems which have personal significance for teenagers. The last unit, "Understanding the Importance of Living Together in Today's World," is designed to help pupils adjust to our changing civilization, and to be able to evaluate world problems from the viewpoint of respect and understanding for people of different cultures.

Proceeding from the premise that the contents of a curriculum should be made up of the needs, problems, and concerns of individuals in a society, and, since today's citizen is in greater need of knowledge of geography, just to read the newspapers and magazines, than was his brother of yesterday, Modern Living IV was conceived. Events have moved new places into the limelight. Not even a "Man from Mars" could have lived during the past few years without realizing that geography has a definite contribution to make in solving the problem that man faces as he tries to establish himself in various parts of the world and to live at peace with his fellowman. People of different creeds, colors, and cultures who co-operated during war, do not seem to be able to do so now once hostilities have ceased. The unquiet years which have elapsed since the end of World War II makes clear the need of today's citizen to understand the geographic factors which help to account for the power struggle going on in the world today.

An understanding of the basic factors of peoples, resources, industries, transportation, work regions, climates, and problems of distribution is vital for intelligent living and interpretation in today's world. Our course of study in Modern Living IV is built around these major units.

Today's citizen needs to realize that today's geography is that of a world of motion; that it is the struggle of men, space, and resources more in the light of "how fast" than "how far." Today it is speed; not miles. Borders are no longer boundaries. Nothing is static. Not even these courses in Modern Living.

An Instrumental Program in a Junior High School

R. D. BROWN
and HARLOW BERQUIST

SEVERAL years ago the Agassiz Junior High School inaugurated an instrumental program with about twenty-five pupils participating. From this modest beginning, the program was launched with enthusiasm. Naturally many challenges were met, but enthusiasm was never relaxed no matter how many obstacles were encountered. It caught fire with the pupils and the parents and grew so fast that at times it nearly had the school stymied. However, every challenge was met in this growing program with changes that make the school personnel feel that they have a truly working program that is meeting every criticism that had been leveled against it by pupil, teacher, and parent.

This school has an enrollment of over 730 pupils. It has had growing pains, too, because, when this program was started, there were 500 pupils in the school and over 1,000 pupils are expected in a few years. The district has completed a \$700,000 building addition which includes a beautiful new music department. The present instrumental program includes 119 string pupils and 197 band pupils. This instrumental program involves 43 per cent of the pupils. Breaking these figures down further, the following numbers are enrolled in the string program: seventh grade, 58; eighth grade, 31; and ninth grade, 30. In the band program, there are 75 seventh-grade pupils, 75 eighth-grade pupils and 46 ninth-grade pupils.

There are six elementary schools whose pupils feed into the junior high school. Each spring the instrumental teachers contact all sixth-grade pupils and explain the program to them. Those pupils that indicate an interest in the program are tested. If they show definite aptitudes, each is placed in the string or band groups where the teacher feels the pupil can best succeed. It is no longer a matter of selling the program, but it is now a matter of trying to keep the program from growing too much beyond the immediate facilities in order to offer it to all who desire it or can succeed to some degree.

There are two band groups in the seventh grade—one string group and one group of advanced string and band pupils. This latter group is never

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THE SCHEDULE OF FOUR SEVENTH-GRADE CLASSES AND FOUR EIGHTH-GRADE CLASSES.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
7 ¹	English	Math	Gen. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	PE	Art
7 ²	Math	English	Soc. Sci.	Gen. Sci.	PE	H.Ec.-W.Work
7 ³	Soc. Sci.	Gen. Sci.	English	Math	Mu	H.Ec.-W.Work
7 ⁴	Gen. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Math	English	Mu	Art
8 ¹	Mu	Art	English	Gen. Sci.	Math	Soc. Sci.
8 ²	Mu	H.Ec.-M.Work	Math	Gen. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	English
8 ³	English	H.Ec.-M.Work	Soc. Sci.	PE	Math	Gen. Sci.
8 ⁴	Soc. Sci.	Art	Gen. Sci.	PE	English	Math

taught as a group of strings and band pupils under the same teacher at the same time. In fact, string and band pupils are not combined under the same instructor as one group. However, in the eighth grade the groups are so arranged that the instrumental teachers meet with string and band sections separately. In other words, these groups consist of about 15 pupils each, whereas the seventh-grade groups number about 30 pupils. By this arrangement it is possible to give better attention to the differences in the techniques of unlike instruments. In the ninth-grade the full band and the full string groups meet together. Each of these groups meets three hours a week during regular school periods and is conducted as a complete band or orchestra class. In addition to the class instruction, there are cadet and concert bands and orchestras which absorb pupils from all three grades. They meet twice weekly before the regular periods of the day start in the morning.

The above schedule will not work in every school system and it may not be the offering desired by many schools. Most schedules have to fit the facilities available or the state requirements. Each principal must arrange his own combinations of groupings.

In the 7¹ and 7² classes there are band and non-band personnel. During the fifth hour, the instrumental pupils follow the 7¹ program and the non-instrumental pupils follow the 7² program. Art is offered to the 7¹ class during the sixth period and home economics and wood shop to the 7² class. In the middle of the semester, these classes exchange sixth-period programs. The 7³ and 7⁴ classes are made up of string pupils and others who take only vocal music. Their pattern of classes is similar to the 7¹ and 7² classes.

The eighth-grade program is very similar except that the pupils in the 8¹ and 8² classes are made up of string (violin) and band (percussion) groups and non-instrumental pupils. During the first period, the instrumental pupils follow the 8¹ schedule and the non-instrumental pupils follow the 8² schedule. The violin pupils (about 18) go to the string teacher, and the percussion pupils (about 12) go to the band teacher. For example, a large band section dovetails with a small string section such as the string basses. (Classes run from 29 to 32 pupils.)

Ninth-grade pupils take five, five-hour courses plus band (3 hours) and physical education (2 hours). A club and guidance program is also included in the pupil's schedule. All pupils take general science five hours a week for the three years. However, in this course a definite amount of time (2 hours per week) is devoted to guidance and hygiene. The club period is held once every other week by making four periods out of three periods on the regular schedule. Thus, the school operates on a forty-five-minute club period every other week. String and band ensembles practice during the club period. On alternate weeks an auditorium program is scheduled for the pupils.

This program requires three full-time teachers; a band, a string, and vocal teacher. It requires teachers who are experienced in mass instru-

mental teaching. Many of the larger universities and colleges are giving courses in this field. The school should furnish instruments for all beginning classes. Sometimes three pupils may use the same instrument. Most of the pupils are required to buy instruments that are not too expensive. A music room with practice rooms helps very much. However, when the program was started, the auditorium was used and sections of a band class were spread over the auditorium. In the selection of students, one must have somewhat of a balance of the sexes because of home economics, industrial arts, and physical education classes. This might seem to be a problem but this obstacle has been overcome. Music people that visit the school are surprised at the large number of boys playing stringed instruments. Salesmanship is the only answer to this problem.

The administration believes that it is better to meet a larger class of mixed instruments several times a week than a smaller class of like instruments one period a week. This provides an opportunity for supervised practice and a very close check on playing habits during the week. With the advent of television and the many other activities that occupy the pupils' time outside of school hours, it is felt that little time is left for home practice; and, besides, home practice without supervision is often of questionable value.

Heterogeneous grouping in each class, except for the one period each day, is followed in order to keep from having too selective a grouping of strong academic pupils together all day long. At first, there were only two instrumental classes and four non-instrumental classes in the seventh grade. The instrumental pupils remained together in all subjects at all times. Now with the program as large as it is, selective grouping would be too select. When pupils are divided on the basis of any one talent, they are divided largely according to academic ability. There are, however, several low academic pupils in the instrumental classes. On the whole, excellent music pupils are excellent in the academic subjects. This would be true if art or any other subject were used as a medium for grouping the pupils.

The program is intensely popular with the pupils as shown by the number that participate. Parents and teachers are sincere in their praise of it. Music teachers that visit the school are enthusiastic about it. The school was recognized nationally by being invited a few years ago to bring the string orchestra of sixty-four pieces to the National Music Educator's Convention.

An Annotated Bibliography of Periodical Literature Pertaining to *Evaluative Criteria*, 1950 Edition

M. EUGENE SMITH
and ARTHUR C. HEARN

THE Cooperative Study of Secondary Standards has developed, in the *Evaluative Criteria*, (now in process of being revised) an instrument which has been widely used in the appraisal of secondary schools. Hundreds of institutions throughout the United States have employed the *Criteria* in evaluating and improving their educational offerings. Indications are that the instrument will be used increasingly in the years ahead, as our secondary schools strive to keep up with rapidly changing conditions and needs. Motivated by the belief that a bibliography of material pertaining to the *Evaluative Criteria* might be useful to many educators interested in the appraisal of secondary-school programs, the writers have analyzed the articles annotated below. These articles include all periodical material relating to the 1950 edition as listed in the *Education Index* through April 1956, under the heading "Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards."

Carrothers, George E. "Early Beginnings of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIX (October 1954), 178-84. An account of the formative years of the Cooperative Study. Tells of agreement on necessity of periodic revision. As key functions of *Evaluative Criteria* lists: (a) aid to high schools in organizing improved educational programs for all enrolled; (b) provision of an appraising instrument for accrediting associations. Notes rapid sale of 1950 edition.

Devitt, Joseph J. "After Evaluation—Improvement," *Clearing House*, XXVIII (January 1954), 263-65. Based on the use of *Evaluative Criteria* in four Maine high schools. Shows procedures utilized to maintain beneficial school-community relationships and methods used to carry out recommendations.

"Evaluating Secondary Schools in the Decade Ahead," *Proceedings of the Sixty-Fourth Annual Convention of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools*, 1950. 40-58. Emanating from discussion regarding the then newly published 1950 *Evaluative Criteria* were certain clarifications including the following: (a) a school would be evaluated—as had been the case when earlier editions were used—in the light of its own objectives and qualifications; (b) not

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all parts of the revised instrument were applicable to the evaluation of every school; (c) a statement on religion as one of the educational needs of youth (Section C) was omitted because of certain state laws and because of the difficulty entailed in construction of a declaration acceptable to all religious groups.

Franzen, Carl G. F., Christian Jung, and Otto Hughes. "Use of the *Evaluative Criteria* in the Indiana Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the School of Education*. Bloomington: Indiana University, XXX (January 1954), 7-82. This bulletin, based primarily on techniques developed in seventy Indiana evaluations, and prepared as an aid to both visiting committees and schools to be evaluated, is a detailed composite of steps to be taken in the appraisal of a school.

Holland, Clement, "Evaluation in the St. Louis Public Schools," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (April 1952), 36-38. Discusses use of *Evaluative Criteria* in appraisal of St. Louis high schools. For maximum results to aid community, recommends concurrent evaluation of elementary schools; describes local development of *Evaluation Handbook for Elementary Schools* for this purpose.

Huffman, Harry. "Evaluative Criteria for Business Education Department," *National Business Education Quarterly*, XIX (May 1951), 9-12, 37. Praises business education section of 1950 edition as an expanded, eight-page segment making possible a proper evaluation of a school's business education program. Cites "Statement of Guiding Principles," checklist titles, and, in condensed form, samples of important checklist items.

Jessen, Carl A. "The Revised Evaluative Criteria," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (October 1950), 70-76. Tells of 1948-1950 revision process, based on eight years of experience, utilized to produce improved 1950 *Evaluative Criteria*. Lists various major revisions, comments on expanded educational program and introduction of different set of ratings.

"New Evaluative Instruments for Secondary Schools," *School Life*, XXXIII (October 1950), 4-5, 7. Takes up reasons for revision; discusses general characteristics of 1950 edition, which includes in one volume the essentials of three earlier publications. States that major changes concerned techniques of determining school objectives and expansion of educational program sections. Includes chart: "Cooperative Study Committee and Staff."

"The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards: Twentieth Birthday," *School and Society*, LXXVIII (October 31, 1953), 139-41. Briefly reviews twenty-year history of Cooperative Study; tells of beneficial effects of *Evaluative Criteria*. Stresses the co-operative effort going into the construction of this instrument from its birth in 1933, when six major regional associations joined to determine procedures resulting in the earliest publications, through several decades and culminating in the effective 1950 edition.

"Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards after Twenty-One Years," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXX (October 1955), 219-25. Reports that the 1950 edition, a creative revision based on the reactions of hundreds of users, although continuing the fundamental characteristics of self-evaluation, committee evaluation, guiding principles, checklists, and evaluation items, differs from the 1940 edition in methods of reporting and summarizing findings and in sections on school objectives and needs of youth.

Mardis, Harold C. "Current Use of the Evaluative Criteria," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVI (January 1952), 244-45. Tells of favorable reception

and heavy sale of new edition. Reports that Middle Atlantic and Southern Associations were using 1950 edition more than was the North Central. Need for revisions and incorporation of new materials had become evident after ten years. In contrast to earlier publications, the revised instrument emphasizes self-evaluation, provides qualitative ratings, and makes possible simplified summaries.

Matthews, R. D. "The Evaluative Criteria, 1950 Edition," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (March 1951), 226-29. Describes careful methods employed in 1948-1949 in construction of 1950 edition of *Evaluative Criteria*. Lists major features retained. Greatest part of article gives detailed account of changes introduced with reasons for the institution of each of these.

Owens, Morgan R. "Report on the Use of the Evaluative Criteria," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVII (October 1952), 234-35. Enumerates reasons for great influence of *Evaluative Criteria* on United States secondary education. Tells of its specific value as reported by administrators using it in Arkansas; lists most frequently given statements regarding *Evaluative Criteria* by those serving on visiting committees. Recommends more extensive use in order to upgrade secondary education in America.

Slemmer, Winifred. "The 1950 Evaluative Criteria," *Proceedings Thirty-Eighth Annual Schoolmen's Week*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1951. 265-71. A valuable, detailed resume of the make-up and operational procedures of the 1950 edition, *Evaluative Criteria*.

Umstattd, J. G. "Implications for Use of the 1950 Criteria by State Departments of Education and Local Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (March 1951), 229-40. In describing an evaluation of the El Paso school system, tells of great value of 1950 edition in appraisal of secondary schools. For best community results recommends a concurrent elementary school evaluation such as that carried on in El Paso by use of Otto's *Handbook for Self-Appraisal and Improvement of Elementary Schools*; suggests employment of a consultant to facilitate evaluation. Recommends change be made in marking process and greater use of panel discussions.

Unruh, Adolph. "Improvement Program for Nine High Schools," *Nation's Schools*, LIV (October 1954), 55-58. In an eighteen-months' program and with the aid of more than 800 educators from outside the school district, nine St. Louis high schools were evaluated. Various valuable outcomes included the doubling of library appropriations, improved in-service training of teachers, allotment of \$600,000 for equipment and instructional supplies, and establishment of an active lay committee to study vocational education in St. Louis.

The Book Column

Professional Books

ADAMS, G. S., and T. L. TORGERSON. *Measurement and Evaluation*. New York 19: Dryden Press. 1956. 672 pp. \$5.75. This volume has been prepared to meet the needs of teachers by providing a functional approach to measurement and evaluation. The authors are attempting to interpret a modern philosophy of education in terms of evaluation so that teachers may gain understanding and competence in implementing this philosophy in schoolroom practice. These two volumes represent a departure from earlier textbooks in evaluation in the following ways: (1) the emphasis throughout is upon the student and his problems with techniques of measurement and evaluation presented as methods of studying and solving these problems; (2) measurement and evaluation are considered indispensable to teachers, embodying understandings and techniques which must be made an integral part of the teaching process; (3) measurement and evaluation are presented as aids in preventing serious scholarship and behavior difficulties as well as in correcting existing problems; (4) informal methods of evaluation as well as standardized tests are emphasized; and (5) an opportunity is provided the beginning or prospective teacher to learn by doing, (a) through the solution of practical problems appearing at the end of each chapter, (b) through the analysis of the intelligence-, aptitude-, and achievement-test scores provided in Appendix C, (c) through the evaluation of standardized tests, and (d) through the study of high-school students by means of both formal and informal techniques.

The text is divided into four parts, as follows:—The Evaluation Process (orientation to the field of measurement and evaluation as it impinges upon the field of secondary education); Part II—The Study of Individuals (application of the technique of measurement and evaluation to students in order that the teacher may gain a better understanding of them); Part III—The Improvement of Instruction (instructional and curricular use of data for the improvement of instruction); and Part IV—Administrative, Supervisory, and Guidance Aspects (selecting standardized tests; planning and administering a testing program; using evaluation data in individual and group guidance; using cumulative records; and compiling, summarizing, and interpreting longitudinal and cross-sectional data for individuals and for classes.) Functional problems at the end of each chapter provide an opportunity to handle test scores, construct profiles, interpret test data, administer tests, and construct and evaluate teacher-made tests.

BAYLIFF, R. E., EUGENE CLARK, LOYD EASTON, B. E. GRIMES, D. H. JENNINGS, and N. H. LEONARD. *Readings in Social Policy*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company. 1954. 543 pp. \$3.65. In American and Western society there are a number of widely accepted social ends and social values. The readings in this book have been selected for the light they shed on

the broad social ends of society, on the specific social goals and policies by which we attempt to achieve these ends, and upon the way in which these goals and policies need to be evaluated in terms not only of their specific purpose but also in terms of their favorable or unfavorable consequences for other ends and values.

These aims have dictated the general organization of the book. The introductory section includes, first, readings which deal with the relation of science to values, and second, readings which set forth fundamental principles for analyzing and evaluating social policies and goals. The next sections of the book include readings which discuss major social objectives primarily related to the principal fields of the social sciences. These readings have been carefully selected to do the following things: to identify the meaning and reasons for a particular social objective; to organize the knowledge from the most closely related social science field which is most useful in understanding how to attain the goal; and to evaluate the desirability of attaining the goal in terms of its consequences for other ends and values.

It is intended that the careful selection of readings according to this pattern will have two important effects. One is the provision of the additional and supplementary knowledge which is the standard purpose of reading books. The other and somewhat more unique purpose is that the student will be able to observe the phases of analysis which are necessary to anything more than an arbitrary or haphazard evaluation of important problems of social policy.

The concluding section includes additional materials on the historical background, meaning, and interrelationships of major social ends of our society. These readings have been placed at the end of the book with the idea that the student's use of the previous readings will have given him a richer background for a more complete understanding and appreciation of such basic social ideals as "equality," "freedom of mind," "social stability," "justice," and "democracy." In organization, this book is closely related to the textbook, *Values and Policies in American Society*. A college textbook.

BAYLIFF, R. E., EUGENE CLARK, LOYD EASTON, B. E. GRIMES, D. H. JENNINGS, and N. H. LEONARD. *Values and Policy in American Society*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown and Company. 1954. 544 pp. \$4. It is evident that in a democratic society questions of values cannot be left entirely to the social philosophers. Each individual citizen by the nature of his participation in society must act in large part as his own social philosopher. Yet the questions he is called upon to decide are serious questions.

Since the purpose of this series and particularly of this volume is to contribute to the development of students as citizens, it is necessary to have an approach which effectively brings to bear the evidence of the various social science disciplines upon these important problems of choice. The approach used must include a way of integrating the knowledge and methods of thinking of the various social sciences and bringing them to bear upon policy problems in terms of the basic values of American society.

The editors have been led to the above conclusions by experience and experimentation with approaches to this problem over a period of years. These culminated early in 1951 in the formulation of the basic steps of the method of approach described below and to formulation of plans for a series of books based upon this method. The method of approach has been refined in its

philosophical aspects in the course of the collaboration which resulted in this book.

The method of approach is essentially a combination of ethics and applied scientific method. The authors use four steps in the organization and presentation of the material in this book: (1) identification of the objective, (2) organization of relevant knowledge, (3) consideration of proposed policies, and (4) evaluation of policies and objectives. These four steps, the authors believe, makes a consistent and systematic approach to the solution of problems of social policy. The book is intended primarily for general education in the social sciences at the college freshman or sophomore level. A book on "*Readings in Social Policy*" by the authors is also available.

BELLACK, A. A., chairman. *What Shall the High Schools Teach?* Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. 1956. 240 pp. \$3.75. The authors of this 1956 ASCD Yearbook seek to clarify some of the basic issues and problems which surround the crucial question of what the high school shall teach. Decisions on this point determine the methodology that is appropriate, the students who shall be permitted to succeed, and the role which the high school shall play in American life.

Teasing out the issues and making clear the alternatives is a difficult task, and each individual can do little more than reveal the problem as he sees it. Thoughtful consideration of these issues by all citizens and, particularly, by those concerned primarily with secondary education will make more certain the development of the kind of American secondary school which expresses the feelings of the times. This is a task in which wide participation is needed, and this yearbook will serve well only if it stimulates others to do what the authors—each in his own way—have attempted; namely to state the issues and theoretical problems as they see them.

Many yearbooks of ASCD have focused very largely on what is widely regarded as being good practice for dealing with a particular problem or area. Sometimes the authors have exhorted their readers to go and do likewise. The current yearbook departs from this pattern in that it has little direct consideration of practice or even of practical problems as usually defined. Its approach to the everyday matters of schooling is through a fundamental consideration of some of the theoretical issues on which there ultimately must be clarity if the secondary school is to reach maximum effectiveness.

BROUGHTON, JULIA. *Success in Piano Teaching*. New York 1: Vantage Press, Inc. 1956. 123 pp. \$2.75. "Everything in connection with the lesson is important," says the author of this book which blends the practical with a deeply communicative love of music and of teaching it. The book combines enthusiasm with level-headed advice to teachers, from first approach to more advanced considerations. Its author offers hints for those who teach and those who wish their children to learn the fundamentals of good musicianship.

Theories have been left to theorists. The methods set down are those which have been found best in actual practice with hundreds of pupils, from children of kindergarten age to adults. Because of the author's extensive experience in training piano teachers to teach, her book is of unusually wide scope. Thus there are chapters on a teacher's "fringe" activities, from contacts with pupils' parents to the intricacies of organizing pupil recitals. One chapter presents a self-analysis chart for teachers, a reminder of things they should do, but

may be neglecting. Another goes into the advisability of giving rewards and incentives to young pupils for proficiency, such as stars, colored stickers, and honor lists, considered by many teachers—but not by the author—as “old-fashioned.”

COLE, C. C., JR. *Encouraging Scientific Talent*. New York 27: College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th Street. 1956. 269 pp. \$3.50. This book will be of interest to all educators, organizations, and individuals concerned with increasing the nation's scientific strength by identifying capable young people and assisting them to pursue college and professional training. The author reports fully for the first time the findings and recommendations of the comprehensive study he directed for the College Board at the request and with the support of the National Science Foundation. This volume is the product of a careful survey and research project which combined a critical review of all existing literature in this field with a nation-wide study of high-school students and their plans. In planning the project, the author was aided by an advisory committee of educators and educational specialists. Recognized authorities also contributed to the project by exploring areas which required expert interpretation. Original research, involving a large sample of the country's high-school sophomores and seniors, was conducted by Educational Testing Service and yielded information on their college-going prospects and attitudes which has not been available until this time.

Starting with a definition of the sciences and the characteristics of scientists, the book goes on to describe the ways in which scientific ability may be identified, the present and future need for engineers and scientists, and the large numbers of potential scientists and engineers who for various reasons do not attend college. The factors which deter the development of scientists—individual qualities, family and community conditions, social influences—are appraised and weighed against those forces which could increase their number.

The national study of students provides a wealth of new material on the plans of intellectually gifted students, their motivation for college, interest in science, and financial circumstances. Application of this information and other data to the national situation discloses the number of high ability students who will go to college, the number who do not expect to go, the number who would go if assisted financially, and the number who express no interest in higher education. The book concludes with a discussion of the use of scholarship programs to salvage talent otherwise lost to education and with a series of recommendations for action through which teachers, schools, public information programs, research agencies, and the government can help conserve the nation's best—and most undeveloped—resources. Also included are 40 tables and figures, a 26-page selective bibliography arranged according to subject matter, and an index.

HUGGETT, A. J., and T. M. STINNETT. *Professional Problems of Teachers*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 478 pp. \$5.25. This volume has been prepared for a scientific purpose—to provide basic information for college students who will shortly enter teaching, and for recent graduates who have begun a teaching career, on a cluster of problems which members of the teaching profession must deal with daily as practitioners and as effective members of their professional organizations. The book, then, has been designed primarily to serve two groups: first, its purpose is to provide a suitable text or source book for teacher education students as an orientation to the pressing

professional problems with which they will inevitably be confronted when they become teachers; *second*, the book is intended to serve teachers who feel the need for more intensive study of the problems of their profession, concerning which they had some instruction while still in college, but to whom practical experience revealed the need for more information. The volume has been organized to serve as a text for a specific course or as a source book for appropriate units of more general courses.

LAMBOURNE, NORAH. *Staging the Play*. New York 16: Studio Crowell. 1956. 95 pp. \$5.75. This book is addressed to all those who are concerned with the setting of plays and who try to create an illusion of reality for the space of two or three hours; to all those in fact who are concerned with timber and canvas, braces and weights, scale models and scenic paint, and the practical limitations of the stage. Emphasis is laid on the absolute necessities—enthusiasm which will withstand demands for very hard work, and a mind, orderly and methodical as well as inspired and artistic! For a production with a simple arrangement of curtains, or one for a melodrama played out against several realistic “sets” there is sound advice, illustrated with working diagrams. The plates show a variety of productions often in sketch, as well as finished, form.

LEEDY, PAUL. *Reading Improvement for Adults*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 464 pp. \$4.50. Here is a course in reading improvement for the businessman, engineer, manager, supervisor, student, and everyone else who knows how to read already but wants to—or must—learn how to read more quickly and with increased comprehension. The approach is a practical one. The material is designed to meet the general needs as well as the specialized demands that confront the average adult reader; that is, reading business correspondence, technical reports, graphs, and reading for information and pleasure. Each chapter is a complete unit of instruction equal to a two-hour class session. By conscientiously following the rules and doing the exercises in this book, the reader can bring about a remarkable increase in his reading speed and find that he understands more of what he has read. No laboratory equipment is necessary with this text.

LIGON, E. M. *Dimensions of Character*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 527 pp. \$6.50. This book tells the complete story of research, statistical method, testing, and constant revisions and growth of the Character Research Project. In an age which is broadly scientific it is fitting that religious and character education research should utilize scientific techniques. Because our growth in moral and spiritual values has lagged dangerously behind our advances in technology, Dr. Ligon has considered exploration of personality and social relationships a vital necessity.

Making full use of scientific testing and measurement, he has developed techniques for enlisting the aid of such lay people as parents and teachers. The contributions of these persons have led to observations and discoveries impossible without them. The powerful new developments in experimental design used by the Union College Character Research Project have been basic to this study. Aided by effective team work throughout the country, it has provided the laboratory of psychology at Union College with measureable data.

SHEVIAKOV, G. V., and FRITZ REDL. *Discipline for Today's Children and Youth*, revised. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1201-16th St., N. W. 1956. 64 pp. \$1. This booklet,

first published in 1944, has been thoroughly revised by Sybil K. Richardson. It is one from which teacher and parents, eager to gain new insight into the theory and practice of democratic discipline, will find much help. Schools must foster in children and young people the intellectual and moral discipline needed for preserving and strengthening our democratic way of life. It discusses the meaning of discipline, what kind of discipline we want, and by what methods we can best achieve it. The booklet is divided into two parts: "Let's Look at Discipline" and "Discipline in Classroom Practice."

A Study Guide for Professional Preparation in Educational Administration, Vols. I and II. New York 27: Teachers College, Columbia University. 1956. 83 pp. \$2.50. In this study guide, the Department of Educational Administration at Teachers College builds up a half-century of research, teaching, and other services to the profession, including the outcomes of the five year Co-operative Program in Educational Administration begun in 1950 with a grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. The *Guide* outlines the major aspects of a program of professional development designed to prepare administrative leaders who will have the vision, knowledge, competence, and dedication that the present era demands.

SUTTLES, P. H., editor. *Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1956. 333 pp. \$5.50. This thirteenth annual edition is a professional cyclopedic service, on free learning aids. Limiting the content of the *Guide* to about 1,200 titles, and using less than 50 per cent of the available acceptable listings, together combine to make the materials listed in this edition most highly selective. Every title has been rechecked for availability, nature and content of listing, distribution conditions, and educational value. This edition lists 1,222 items, of which 541, or 44.3 per cent are new. All new titles are starred. Many titles have been deleted. Materials are available from 468 sources, of which 109 are new this year. The units have been set up in a separate booklet for convenient reference. This *Guide* is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of selected free maps, bulletins, pamphlets, exhibits, charts, and books. It brings compiled information on this vast array of worth-while, free educational materials for immediate use, all at finger tips, within the covers of a single book.

Items listed have been selected on the basis of: (1) educational appropriateness; (2) timeliness; (3) arrangement, style, and usability, and (4) freedom from undesirable features. The *Guide* is more than a useful tool to schools. It is a valuable stimulus to the acquisition of curriculum laboratory-library materials, timely as well as up-to-date. Moreover, it offers a challenge to all educators to keep the curriculum in close contact with contemporary life.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

AHL, F. N. *Wings Over the Congo*. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House. 1956. 208 pp. \$3. The Belgian Congo, one third the size of the United States, is one of the most exciting and colorful countries on earth as well as one of the richest. This vast country located in the heart of equatorial Africa has long remained somewhat of a mystery to the rest of the world, for little has been written about its history or its inhabitants. This book is not merely a diary of the author's experiences in the Belgian Congo, but it also presents a story of progress and reveals the actual conditions of Congolese life.

AMES, M. U., A. O. BAKER, and J. F. LEAHY. *Science in Today's World*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 280 pp. \$3.32. This is an introductory general science book designed to develop a real appreciation of the effect of modern science on daily living. Topics and problems were chosen because: (1) they have a meaning and purpose for the student; (2) they supply useful scientific facts and generalizations; (3) they offer opportunities for student development in the use of the scientific method of solving problems; (4) they widen the science horizons and interests of students; and (5) they stimulate an intelligent curiosity about the world and its problems.

Several valuable features will be found at the end of each cycle. The "Ideas to Remember" sections review the important ideas or concepts. The "Can You Do These" sections list a comprehensive set of directed student activities, including simple experiments, projects, library research, and reports. The "How Would You Answer These" sections supply comprehensive short-answer tests and some additional essay-type questions. Bibliography sections, entitled "Further Reading," suggest related, interesting reading in recent books.

There are also many interesting and colorful pictures and diagrams. Each illustration is directly related to an important idea in the text. Especially for today's student, a good picture or diagram has the teaching value of a substantial amount of text. The language has been kept simple and clear. New or technical words or terms are italicized and then explained in the context nearby. A glossary at the end of the book defines briefly those words and terms that may be strange to the reader, and those that may be difficult to pronounce are spelled phonetically.

ASHLEY, MAURICE. *Marlborough*. New York 11: Macmillan Company, 1956. 143 pp. \$1.50. This is a succinct introduction to the life of England's greatest military hero. The author was research assistant to Sir Winston Churchill when the latter was writing his monumental four-volume biography of his illustrious ancestor.

ATWATER, M. M. *The Trouble Hunters*. New York 22: Random House, 1956. 214 pp. \$2.95. When Don Buckley received a letter from the Forest Service accepting an application he had never submitted, he was puzzled. But of one thing he was sure, his two forester friends, Hank Winton and Jim Dade, were fighting trouble again and they needed his help. Just how bad the trouble was, Don could not have guessed. As he rode into the ranger station to take on the tough job of district packer, he little dreamed that somewhere in the vast network of the Forest Service a traitor was busy at work—a man who would sell out the Service for a fortune in stolen platinum bars!

The long summer weeks that followed became a war of nerves. With Don Buckley always watching the mules, Hank Winton checking the planes, and Jim Dade on constant lookout at headquarters, the unknown thief must be getting more and more desperate for a way to move the precious metal off the district. Soon the anxious man must take a chance.

BAKER, N. B. *Big Catalogue*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956. \$2.75. It was a wild scheme to try a mail-order business in the 1870's. No one had ever done it before, and wise people believed that to buy anything by mail was a sure way to be cheated. Montgomery Ward had seen that happen as a boy, when his father bought, sight-unseen, a "fully equipped emporium" in Niles, Michigan, and the family arrived to find only an empty store. Monty, at fourteen, was obliged to leave school and take a job in the

local barrel factory. Even when he later went to St. Joe for his first clerking job in Captain Boughton's store, he regularly sent home part of his salary.

Captain Boughton's store was one where farmers brought in their produce and bartered for supplies. It disturbed Monty to see the way in which the farmers were taken advantage of by storekeepers who gave them shoddy merchandise and then charged unreasonable prices. Monty dreamed of starting a business where farmers could shop by mail for quality merchandise at fair prices. The disastrous Chicago fire wiped out his first attempt at such a venture, but in 1872 he tried again and, with the help of his bride, worked up the first Montgomery Ward catalogue. This time, supported by the Grange, he won the farmers' confidence, and as his success grew, so did the catalogue. At his retirement in the early 1900's, Montgomery Ward was not only the founder of a gigantic business, but also one of Chicago's outstanding leaders.

BALL, ZACHARY. *Skin Diver.* New York 11: Holiday House. 1956. 251 pp. \$2.75. This is a story of the blue-green underwater world of the skin diver, a world of slow motion and quick danger, weird and beautiful and endlessly exciting. Joe Panther, young Seminole skipper of a deep-sea fishing boat, is hired by a marine scientist for an undersea research expedition. Aided by Joe's friend, Tiger Tail, and a native diver, they spend three adventurous months in the Bahama Islands. With swim fins and snorkels, aqualungs and spear guns and underwater cameras, they explore coral reefs, collect and photograph specimens, and hunt sharks, sting rays, and giant tarpons.

BARRINGER, M. B. *And the Waters Prevailed.* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 188 pp. \$3. On the eve of the Manhood Hunt, as Andor the Little suffers the taunts of the loutish Stor, he steels himself to succeed by the tribe's standards in the coming trial. By surviving in the wilderness naked, unarmed, and alone, and returning clothed in the skin of an animal he has killed single-handed, each adolescent boy of this Stone Age tribe must prove himself worthy of being considered a man. Andor succeeds to the satisfaction of the elders, but knowing that his new-found friend, Kelen the Merry, has saved his life during a vicious wolf fight, Andor is plagued by doubt. Is he entitled to be hailed as Andor the Wolf-Killer? And does it really matter whether or not he has killed a wolf?

BATCHELOR, J. F. *Sea Lady.* New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 60 pp. \$2.25. Could the inquisitive stranger who asked so many questions about the shipyards be a spy? Eleven-year-old Denny wasn't sure, but since everyone in Essex, Connecticut, was worried about the unprotected shipyards during this second year of the War of 1812, he decided to tell his grandfather about the stranger. As soon as he could get away, he hurried to the shop where his grandfather, a master carver, made figureheads for proud sailing vessels. Denny always liked to linger there, for he longed to be a carver, too, though he hadn't dared as yet to mention this because his grandfather still thought him too small to be of much use. The shop was particularly exciting to Denny now, since the most beautiful ship's figurehead his grandfather had ever made—*Sea Lady*—was almost finished.

And then one night disaster struck! Hidden by a heavy fog, the British sailed up the river in a surprise attack and set fire to the shipyards. All Denny could think of was *Sea Lady*. With great courage he acted on his own initiative, and even though he could not prevent the catastrophe which swept

through the town, Denny managed to save enough of his grandfather's possessions to enable him to start business again. It was a new start for both of them, now that Denny had proved he could think and act like a man.

BERRY, E. W., C. M. TANGEMAN, and EDWIN ERRETT, editors. *Christian Hymns*. New York: The North River Press, 311-319 W. 43rd St. 1952. 526 pp. This book is composed of 492 hymns that the editors felt should have lasting literary and musical merit. Also included are 74 Responsive Readings taken from the Old and New Testaments. The editors have made the hymn selections after consulting hundreds of church programs in order to discover which hymns were most generally used today. The choice has resulted in a selection that ranges from the second century to modern hymns written by young people of the present generation. The book also contains a table of contents with the hymns classified under twelve major headings, responses, benedictions, an index of first lines, Calls to Worship, a list of authors and translators with dates of birth and death, a list of composers (with dates of birth and death) and sources of tunes, an alphabetical index of tunes, a metrical index of tunes, a topical index, an index of Scripture texts used with hymns, and an index of Scripture selections used in the Responsive Readings.

BLACKINGTON, A. H. *More Yankee Yarns*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 255 pp. \$3.50. This book contains twenty-seven tales from the author's treasure house of New England yarns. Here is the story of the single-handed capture of a British general during the Revolutionary War; the transformation into the U. S. transport *Mount Vernon* of the German luxury liner *Kronprinzessin Cecilie*, with her cargo of \$15,000,000 in gold; the gentlemanly bank robber who baffled the country's ablest detectives; P. T. Barnum's famous "Wild Men of Borneo"; and the story of the Salem sea captain who saved his life by yanking an aching molar from the jaw of the king of the cannibal islands.

BLIVEN, BRUCE, JR. *Battle for Manhattan*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1956. 128 pp. \$3.50. At about eleven o'clock on the morning of September 15, 1776, the troops of General Sir William Howe were put ashore under the guns of the British fleet. From Kip's Bay—at what is now the foot of East Thirty-fourth Street—they rapidly fanned out according to an elaborate picturebook plan of battle which, as events proved, was humorously overcautious, because the Americans under General George Washington, while they were well prepared for the invasion, were, as usual, quick to face about, drop their arms, and flee.

Although some 45,000 men were present at New York, Kip's Bay and the engagements that developed from it were neither large nor bloody. All ended in American withdrawal. But when Washington made his rearguard stand on Harlem Heights, something was born that heretofore had been missing from the American military—morale. As a result, Washington could write that his soldiers "find that it only requires resolution and good officers to make an enemy that they stood in too much dread of, give way." The loss of the battle for Manhattan became the touchstone of victory.

BORLAND, HAL. *High, Wide and Lonesome*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 251 pp. \$3.75. This is the story of a boyhood on one of our last frontiers, the vast, rolling plains of eastern Colorado, long considered "unsalable desert" fit only for grazing land. In this dry, short-grass, lonely region, the Borlands homesteaded in 1909, moving west from Nebraska.

Thirty miles beyond the fringe of settlers already there, young Hal Borland and his father built a house of shiplap lumber with sod laid around the walls for protection from summer heat and winter cold. They dug a well with a post-hole augur and struck good water at twenty feet. They were ready at last for Mrs. Borland to join them.

It was a new way of life for all of them and a time of adventure for nine-year-old Hal. Neighbors were few at first—a sheep herder was the nearest—but the boy was never lonely. He had his chores to do and the land was always fascinating—the birds, the animals, the changing season. And after he got his rifle, there was the opportunity to shoot jackrabbits and other small game.

But it was a hard life for the family. Often they were short on rations. There was a run of bad luck when the two horses died from eating a poisonous weed, and Mr. Borland left to earn more cash at his trade of printer. The dream persisted, however, and the land became their own. Throughout the story runs a spirit of conquest and courage. The homesteaders gained more than their land, for their unique achievement brought a confidence in self that will always be a part of the American tradition.

BROWN, LILIAN. *Bring 'Em Back Petrified*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 277 pp. \$4. Thousands of years ago the great animal migrations of the Ice Age coursed through the jungles of Guatemala's little-known province, El Peten. The recent discovery of fossil bones by a native hunter in the area persuaded Dr. Barnum Brown to stake his reputation as paleontologist for the American Museum of Natural History on an expedition in search of the remains of these prehistoric monsters.

With him when his plane swooped down on the village of Santa Amelia was his wife, Lilian, to act as housekeeper, ambassador, lieutenant, doctor, chronicler, and archaeologist. The Browns quickly found themselves as involved in the lives of their neighbors as they were in science. Eager assistants were readily recruited for the canoe trips up the crocodile infested river, and the entire community took on a carnival air to participate when the search for bones turned to their own river bed. The author recounted the wonders of civilization to the wide-eyed children in the thatch schoolhouse, who declared their own holiday when the floating store arrived, and she found time to unearth a Mayan temple all her own. But her ministries to the sick incurred the wrath of the witch doctor, Kaa, whose curses threatened the fortunes of the entire expedition. Meanwhile Barnum relentlessly raced the oncoming rainy season in pursuit of the elusive skeleton that could alone stamp their venture a complete success.

BUNDY, C. E., and R. V. DIGGINS. *Swine Production*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 349 pp. \$4.50. The book presents many little-known but important developments in swine production. New features include the latest information on new breeds of swine, probing live animals for carcass quality, pro-starter rations, antibiotics, arsenicals, improved housing, farrowing stalls, pasture programs, marketing by grade and yield, new U.S. market grades, and new swine diseases: vesicular exanthema, parakeratosis, gastroenteritis.

Beginning with the opportunities awaiting swine producers, the authors discuss breeds of swine, what to consider in selecting a herd, and the breed differences in carcass quality. Several chapters deal with the feeding and management of swine before, during, and after farrowing, and up to the time

of marketing. Other sections explain the best kind of pasture crops for swine, buildings and production equipment, and disease and parasite control. An important chapter on marketing contains information every hog raiser will want to have at his fingertips.

Aided by research material from twenty specialists throughout the country, these chapters present only information essential to swine production. Each section deals specifically with one phase of swine production. Two hundred illustrations support the text: crisp drawings; big, clear photographs; and fifty compact charts.

BURGWYN, M. H. *True Love for Jenny*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 189 pp. \$2.75. Jenny's sophomore year in high school started well. She was made a member of the all-important City Slickers Club and she had a date with Charlie Ross, the biggest wheel in the senior class. Either one of these developments should have given her self-confidence, but she found that she remained the same insecure person she had always been. This lack of self-confidence was made worse by her strained relationship with her mother, who no longer seemed to understand Jenny and her problems. These worries temporarily fade into the background when Jenny is appointed chairman of the Harvest Ball. Through the responsibilities of the job, she grows in poise and self-assurance and, on the evening of the dance, she breaks through the barriers that have risen between her mother and herself and between herself and Charlie.

BURT, OLIVE. *Brigham Young*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1956. 192 pp. \$2.95. From the turbulent history of the western migrations comes this thrilling story of a desperate and exalting adventure. As Moses led his people into the Promised Land, so Brigham Young led 15,000 persecuted Mormons to religious freedom in Utah, founding an empire in the valley of the Great Salt Lake and bringing a desert to bloom.

In boyhood, as a farmer and carpenter in New York State, Brigham Young tried but failed to find a satisfying religion. Then he read the inspiring *Book of Mormon* and was baptized in the new and controversial Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. He went to Ohio, joined Prophet Joseph Smith and became the great Mormon leader's most trusted disciple.

The Mormons were excellent farmers and prospered wherever they settled, but because there was so little understanding of their religious beliefs, they were regarded with suspicion and not given sanctuary anywhere. When Joseph Smith was assassinated by a mob, Brigham Young became the Mormon leader. On him depended the future of the faith. He must find his flock a permanent home. But where in all America could they hope for safety, freedom from persecution? Perhaps Zion lay in Utah territory in desert lands that nobody wanted—in the desolate valley of the Great Salt Lake.

The story of the migration from Illinois to Utah is perhaps the most incredible in American history. Brigham Young led his penniless, starving, fever-ridden men, women and children across the plains and over the Rocky Mountains. With a genius for organization, he ordered crops planted on the way so that other Mormon groups following might harvest and eat. In almost every settlement a temple was built—and desecrated by furious mobs.

BUTTERFIELD, HERBERT. *Napoleon*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 143 pp. \$1.50. A condensation, which includes the essential facts about Bonaparte's meteoric career.

CAVANNA, BETTY. *The Boy Next Door*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc. 1956. 253 pp. \$2.75. Jane Howard and Ken Sanderson . . . the names had been paired for so long a time that everyone in Brookfield High School took it for granted that Jane was Ken's girl. They had lived next door to each other all their lives and were practically inseparable. When Ken, who liked tinkering with automobile engines almost better than eating, needed assistance, it was Jane who handed him his tools. And when he actually persuaded his father into letting him buy an ancient Cadillac to take apart and put together again, it was Jane who lent him every penny she had saved.

But Jane, who took Ken as much for granted as warmth and sunshine and happiness, backed away from the thought of "going steady." In her eyes they were just good pals, and with that she was contented. Then one night, after a party, Ken showed that he was not at all contented with his unromantic role, and instinctively Jane rebuffed him. Her sister, Belinda, two years younger but far more adept in her dealings with boys, promptly stepped into the breach, confident that Ken was fair game, since Jane had obviously brushed him off.

Cicero. *Pro Rabirio (A Case of High Treason)*. New York 22: Cambridge University Press. 1956. 57 pp. 85¢. Practically all of Cicero's speech in defense of Gaius Rabirius in Latin—one of his greatest. The editor, H. Grose-Hodge, includes a preface, an introduction, notes on the text, and a vocabulary.

CLARK, W. H. and J. H. S. MOYNAHAN. *Famous Leaders of Industry, Sixth Series*. Boston 8: L. C. Page and Company. 1956. 249 pp. \$3.50. Here are inspiring, informative word-portraits of eighteen present-day Americans who have, through their usefulness and ability, reached top positions in various fields of industry: Clarence Birdseye, Allen Du Mont, Henry Ford II, Conrad Hilton, Howard Johnson, Colonel McCormick, Thomas J. Watson, and Charles E. Wilson, to mention a few. What were the traits of character that lifted them to success? What outside influences helped? The answer to these, and other questions on making the grade, appear in this book.

CLEMENT, HAL. *The Ranger Boys in Space*. Boston 8: L. C. Page and Company. 1956. 257 pp. \$2.75. Dart and Bart Ranger and friend Peter Ashburn rocket to Earth's first space satellite; from there they go on to explore the moon . . . not for science, but to rescue their impatient pal, the mysterious Tumble Tighe, who jumped the gun and became the first human being to land on the surface of the moon. The Ranger brothers and Peter were plunged into this high adventure through their efforts to help Uncle Jim Bowen break man's last barrier to the conquest of space—the problem of free fall and its strange effects upon the bodies of men.

COON, HORACE. *How To Be a Better Member*. New York 22: New American Library. 1956. 128 pp. 35¢. A guide to everyone who belongs to a club plus basic rules of parliamentary procedures, covering sequences of business, motions, elections, and how to keep order. A Signet Book.

CROUSE, W. H. *Understanding Science*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 192 pp. \$3.75. This is a revision which includes the very latest information in such areas as fusion, new man-made elements, rockets, space platforms, the projected earth satellite, transistors, color television, gasoline turbines, atomic energy, etc. Here is an informal explanation of some of the scientific laws and a demonstration of how men have used them to invent scientific marvels. Showing the close relationship between the many branches of

science, this book supplies an understanding of our modern world of science and the inventions that have come out of it. Over a hundred descriptive pictures by Jeanne Bendick help explain why science is a natural, integral, and interesting part of man's life and help the reader to *visualize* clearly each step in the amazing march of science.

DALZELL, J. R. and GILBERT TOWNSEND. *Masonry Simplified*, revised, Vol. 1. Chicago 37: American Technical Society, 848 East Fifty-Eighth Street. 1956. 473 pp. \$5.40. Volume 1, in addition to having served as a valuable textbook for the mason, has been of particular value as a reference source for the architect, builder, and contractor. The past several years have seen a number of new developments in styles of masonry, particularly in the construction of private residences. Therefore, the book has been revised to bring it in line with present developments. "Concrete Masonry" (Chapter 5) has been rewritten with this end in mind. A great deal of new material on wall patterns has been introduced, including sections on the use of Roman brick, slump block, and split block, as well as other current styles and techniques. Also discussed is the use of masonry for interiors. The principles of modulated co-ordination and its present application in the building trades is described fully.

Also included in the revision is the 96 page "Illustrated Dictionary of Building Terms." The dictionary includes an exhaustive reference list of tools, materials, and practices covering every aspect of modern construction. Definitions are brief, but by no means at the expense of clarity and thoroughness. The illustrations are very helpful. Builders, tradesmen, and teachers in recent years have found the use of a dictionary of building terms to be invaluable.

DANIELS, W. M., editor. *The Government and the Farmer*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Company. 1956. 195 pp. \$2. The more than 30 articles, reprinted in this Reference Shelf volume, focus on the controversies surrounding past and present Federal farm policies: surpluses; the soil bank or acreage; "retirement" programs; the assorted parity and price support schemes; and the special problems faced by family and low income farms. A concluding section analyzes suggested programs. These articles are by authorities and experts in government, journalism, and economics. The book is organized around the 1956-57 "problem area" designated by the National University Extension Association for high-school discussion and debate. The National high school topic for discussion for 1956-57 is "What agricultural policy will best serve the interests of the people of the United States?" Accordingly it provides not only pro and con views on most issues, but also sums up the history of Federal farm policies with emphasis on the record of the present administration.

DORIAN, EDITH. *The Twisted Shadow*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 168 pp. \$2.75. Judy Carrington, who has one more year of college to finish before she enters library school, takes a summer job in the library of a small Maine seacoast town. She has a lively curiosity about the town, which is the home of the Pulitzer Prize novelist, Sandys Winter, and which boasts a flourishing summer theater, a large colony of writers and artists, and an up-to-date library with a modern bookmobile.

On her first bookmobile trip Judy gets involved not only with a six-foot Jersey pine snake, but also with Assistant Forest Ranger Timothy Wade, who owns the creature. As the summer progresses, Judy and Tim become good friends and find themselves involved in a strange series of events that begin

with an attempt by a weird, twisted, shadowy figure to break into Sandys Winter's house. Not until Hurricane Carol hits the town and Judy answers Sandys Winter's gasping telephone call for help are all the puzzling events of the summer cleared up. Then Judy also makes the private discovery that even to a herpetologist some things are more important than his snakes.

EIFERT, V. S. *Out of the Wilderness*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 214 pp. \$3. Back of every man is the boy he used to be, and behind every great man are the years which molded his character. This book is a stirring account of those early, almost forgotten years in the life of Abraham Lincoln, from which he emerged an heroic man. The book opens with the terrifying earthquake of 1811, which shook Kentucky when young Abe Lincoln was two years old, and it ends with the Winter of the Deep Snow in Illinois in 1831, when Abe was twenty-two. Between these dramatic events lie twenty years of growing up, adventuring, grief, joy, disappointment, hard labor and learning for the boy from the log cabin on Knob Creek.

The story is also very much that of a little-known man, Thomas Lincoln, Abe's father—the young, ambitious, prosperous Tom of the book's opening, and the embittered, hopeless man he had become when the story ends; and of the two staunch women who were his wives and who left their indelible influence upon his life and upon that of the growing boy, Abe.

ERDMAN, L. G. *The Wide Horizon*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 245 pp. \$3. This time it's Katie's story. Almost fifteen, she had always felt stranded in the middle of the family. The twins, Dick and Bert, had each other. Carolyn, the baby, was too young to be a real companion. Melinda was the oldest of the family, and try as Katie would, she could never seem to be anything more than the younger sister—the one who got the outgrown clothes, the discarded school books. Katie adored her sister, however, and wished she could be as brave and resourceful. But she couldn't understand or share Melinda's love for the wind-swept Panhandle. Nor could she understand why Melinda, when given a chance to go back to school in East Texas, turned it down.

FLOHERTY, J. J. *Forest Ranger*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 143 pp. \$2.75. A Forest Ranger's job is difficult and dangerous, and it is never dull. The men who guard our valuable timberland must be well-trained, hard-working, and courageous, for they fight a never-ending battle against fire, avalanches, disease, and crime. Tales of adventure and heroism are common in forestry service circles, since every Ranger has a supply of fascinating anecdotes taken from his own experience. This book includes some of the best of these tales. Hair-raising accounts of smoke-jumping and adventure in the woods are balanced by interesting and useful information about a Ranger's career. The author has done careful research into the methods and training of these men who work to preserve the American forests.

FOSDICK, H. E. *Martin Luther*. New York 22: Random House. 1956. 184 pp. \$1.50. On April 17, 1521, a solitary monk stood before the Emperor of Germany, on trial for his life. The Pope excommunicated him, accusing him of writing books which taught false religious doctrine, and now the Emperor was demanding that he retract his heretical teachings—or else be burned at the stake. But the defendant refused with the ringing words: "I cannot and will not retract anything, for it is neither safe nor right to act against one's conscience." This courageous monk was Martin Luther. When he stood before

the Diet of Worms on the April day, the Roman Catholic Church was the only Christian church in existence. Martin Luther was not trying to start a new religion. He had only meant to speak out against what seemed to him to be abuses in the Church. But his nailing of the famous Ninety-Five Theses on the church door in Wittenberg in 1517 was a spark that set off a tremendous explosion. For Luther had said with stout, stinging words what multitudes of Germans had felt but had not dared to say. And now the German peasants, grateful for Luther's forthright stand, were threatening to rise in rebellion if the valiant monk was condemned to death. Martin Luther had unwittingly launched a great movement of reform, and it could not be stopped. The Protestant Reformation was born.

FRIERMOOD, E. H. *That Jones Girl*. Garden City: Doubleday and Company, Inc. 1956. 252 pp. \$2.75. Lizzie Lou Jones hated her name. It belonged to a plain unpopular girl, and Lizzie Lou pined to be pert and in demand like wealthy Bonnie Mason. Exciting things like the Armistice were going on in the world, and the only excitement in her life was the thrilling things that happened to Mary Pickford and Theda Bara in the Saturday movies. Then Aunt Lou, who was a real Broadway star, came for a visit and it was as if a fairy godmother had come to the Joneses' house. Lace collars and French heels might be wastefully extravagant, as more practical Aunt Liz claimed, but they certainly gave Lizzie Lou confidence. She began to see that she could be attractive in a different way from doll-faced Bonnie. Bill Monroe seemed to think so, and what with his interest, and a part in the school play, and all the other wonderful things that happened, "that Jones girl" found herself enjoying the best year that a high-school senior could have wanted.

GAER, JOSEPH. *The Wisdom of the Living Religions*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 338 pp. \$3.95. This book opens many doors. It gives, in brief, accounts of the basic tenets of the living religions in their historical development; it presents the essential ethical teachings of each of the living religions; and it introduces the lay reader to the rich literature of sayings, maxims, and parables as found in the world's sacred books. Indirectly it also shows how all the living religions, in spite of their diversity in form and ritual, agree in their essential ethics. The religions represented and treated alphabetically in this book are: Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Jainism, Judaism, Mohammedanism (Islam), Shintoism, Taoism, and Zoroastrianism. A topical index gives the major ethical ideas as they appear in the different religions for ready comparison.

GROMBACH, J. V. *Olympic Cavalcade of Sports*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. 216 pp. Hardbound, \$2.75; paperbound, 35¢. An introduction to the greatest athletic show on earth—a history of the Olympic games, sport by sport and a report of the 1956 Olympiad, complete with the records of all events in modern competition.

HAMILTON, J. E. and W. R. BRYANT. *Profitable Farm Management*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 406 pp. \$4.80. This book presents the principles of efficient farm management and shows how they may be applied for better living and greater profits. The authors have tried to organize the material so that the reader can easily find the answers to his specific management problems. Part I is particularly for the beginning farmer and is a discussion of the general approach to farming. Part II treats in detail the varied problems of getting a farm started or of starting out on the job of farm

management. Part III shows how a farm may be improved through surveying, analyzing, and reorganizing the farm business. In it we have suggested ways of making adjustments to constantly changing conditions. Part IV deals with the farmer's relations with the larger community of which he is a part.

HOBART, LOIS, *A Palette for Ingrid*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1956. 188 pp. \$2.95. Ingrid Carlsen wanted to paint. When she won a scholarship to the Art Students League in New York City, the dream began to materialize. She did have two problems, however. One was the realization that if she failed to be self-supporting in a year, she would have to return to Minnesota. The other was the deeper knowledge that as a young artist she would have to make many sacrifices, meet the strong demands of competition, and be willing to compromise, except with her high standards and high ideals. But she was determined to succeed in spite of it all.

HORNSTEIN, PERCY, and BROWN, editors. *The Reader's Companion to World Literature*. New York 22: New American Library. 1956. 496 pp. Hardbound, \$3.50; paperbound, 50¢. A comprehensive and authoritative volume of information about writers and writing from the earliest times to the present—authors, titles, literary movements, historical periods, and technical terms and phrases. A Mentor Book.

JACKSON, C. P. and O. B. JACKSON. *Basketball Clown*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 160 pp. \$2.75. This is the story of Fred Lyons, captain of the basketball team, and of his team's struggle to keep permanently the Midstate Conference championship trophy. Valley High needed a tall rugged boy like the school's newcomer, "Moose" Conklin, but Moose was a problem player. He had become involved in a feud with the team's other tall star, Tek Jennings, and he insisted on amusing the fans by clowning on the court. With the help of the coach and all the team, Moose and Tek slowly learned to appreciate each other. And Fred discovered that he could not always make people do things according to the Lyons method—that the contributions of all kinds of people go to make up a good team.

JACKSON, SHIRLEY. *The Witchcraft of Salem Village*. New York 22: Random House. 1956. 176 pp. \$1.50. It all began when a group of girls, ranging in age from nine to nineteen, formed an informal club. The place was Salem Village in Massachusetts, and the year 1692, when people still believed in witches. Nearly every day the girls would gather in the big cheerful kitchen of Samuel Parris, the local minister, to talk to his Indian slave, Tituba. The grownups thought that Tituba was instructing the girls in the various duties of housework and cooking, but Tituba was telling them stories—stories filled with the magic and superstition she had known in her youth.

Little by little the girls began acting very strangely. They were bewitched, people said, and they pressed the girls to name the person or persons who were causing them to scream and fall into fits. The "afflicted" girls suddenly realized that their game of make-believe had gone too far and that they might be severely punished if they told the truth, which was that they themselves were responsible for their foolish behavior. So they accused some of the most respected men and women in the village of being witches who were torturing them! The furor that followed as one innocent and God-fearing person after another was examined, tried, and hanged forms an episode in our history as strange as it is shocking, a true story that rivals the weirdest tale of suspense.

JONES, V. C. *Gray Ghosts and Rebel Raiders*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1956. 431 pp. \$4.50. Silently and boldly the small bands of Confederates would descend from the mountains, attack the enemy, then disappear. They snatched couriers to learn of Union movements and plans; they destroyed bridges and disrupted railroad service; they stole through picket lines and attacked sleeping camps. They demoralized and impeded the Northern armies in a way of warfare as ancient as biblical times, yet as modern as today. They even kidnapped three Northern generals from their beds, almost without firing a shot! This book tells the story of guerrilla warfare during the Civil War—an exciting account of the incredible adventures of such rebel leaders as Harry Gilmor, "Lig" White, Turner Ashby, Hanse McNeill, and the indefatigable Mosby, and their courageous and daring efforts to prevent Northern hordes from sweeping through the South.

KELLER, W. F. *The Nation's Advocate*. Pittsburgh 18: University of Pittsburgh Press. 1956. 463 pp. \$5. This first biography of Henry Marie Brackenridge to be published, commemorates an American—"A Native of the West" as Brackenridge styled himself—whose achievements merit recognition today. The author describes enthusiastically and sympathetically Brackenridge's long (1786-1871) and eventful life: his boyhood in Western Pennsylvania and Louisiana; his relationship with his father, Hugh Henry Brackenridge, witty scholar-lawyer, a founder of the University of Pittsburgh, and celebrated author of *Modern Chivalry*, whose stern, sometimes heartless upbringing gave an unusual direction to his son's life; Henry's trip up the Missouri in 1811 with the fur-trading expedition of Manuel Lisa; his career in public service, first as a deputy attorney general for the Orleans Territory, then successively, district judge in Louisiana, secretary of the mission to South America (1817-18), member of the Maryland House of Delegates, alcalde of Pensacola, judge of West Florida, superintendent of the live oak reservation at Deer Point near Pensacola—the first American forest experiment station—, member of Congress, commissioner on the Mexican Claims Commission, member of the Pennsylvania House of Representatives; and his last years in Western Pennsylvania as founder of the city of Tarentum.

KING, R. C., JR. *Practical Marine Engineering*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 555 pp. This book presents the basic elements of the marine steam power plant. It provides a summary of the basic information required of engineering officer applicants, together with self-testing questions derived from actual situations likely to be encountered in the various types of machinery and equipment. This new edition has been brought into agreement with most recent Coast Guard regulations. In it, the chapter on fire fighting equipment rules and regulations has been entirely rewritten. Features of propulsion machinery, refrigeration systems, auxiliaries, and deck machinery are fully discussed. In addition, a valuable section on engine room mathematics has been added.

The important new chapter on engine room mathematics gives a wealth of valuable basic material. After a review of the fundamentals of mathematics, the chapter shows how to solve problems of these types: area and volume, pumps, staybolts, efficiency of mechanical devices, riveted joints, ships' speeds, horsepower, electricity, temperature conversion, and many others. Formulas and ways of checking answers are given, along with review problems for

practice. More than 200 illustrations and diagrams demonstrate fundamental operating principles, construction, and methods of assembly and repair.

KLOSE, V. T. *Call Me Mother*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 243 pp. \$3.50. This is an amusing account of the author's life from boarding school days through college, marriage, travel, and an unplanned career as a writer, radio and TV broadcaster. It is the story of a woman who was determined to have no career, but who ended up having several.

KNIGHT, R. A. *Search for the Galleon's Gold!* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 191 pp. \$2.95. Here is exciting adventure of brave men, ships, and treasure—told as fiction, but based on accurate historical fact. The story is told through the exciting experiences of two Spanish youths, Miguel and Sanchez, who sailed as pages on the *Florencia*, flagship of the Armada, and Donald and Alan, sons of the Scottish Clan MacLean. The four became firm friends in Scotland after the defeat of the Armada when the captain of the *Florencia* made an agreement with the MacLean chief to lend his men to fight an enemy clan in return for food and supplies to return home to Spain.

The lure of lost treasure is never-ending. In spite of money and lives squandered in attempts to recover sunken gold, the dream of it persists generation after generation. But no treasure has been more persistently sought after than that of the *Florencia*, for almost four hundred years placed by legend beneath the waters surrounding the Western isles of Scotland.

MACKELLAR, WILLIAM. *The Team That Wouldn't Quit*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 160 pp. \$2.75. This is a fast-moving basketball story centered around Captain Doug Mason whose team faces almost certain disaster when the spectacular Brad Silvers and several other players turn in their uniforms. The Rangers' season is then handicapped by a lack of manpower and crippled by public apathy. The team holds on despite the unequal competition of each game. Doug is determined that they will not quit, but he is equally firm in his refusal to listen to any defense of Brad Silvers' actions. Instead Doug pins all his hopes on Jeff Baron—a boy with a natural basketball build but no special enthusiasm for the game. On the eve of the big playoff Jeff is injured and Doug is forced to make an important decision. He knows that Brad has suffered because of his hasty withdrawal from a game he loves and plays so well, but he cannot forget what seems to him to be Brad's great disloyalty.

MACMILLAN, ANNE. *Levko*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 159 pp. \$2.75. The Warnichuck family are anxiously awaiting a strange addition to their circle, a boy from a D.P. camp in Germany. He is Grandfather Warnichuck's nephew and his name is Levko—that's all the family know about the youngster.

What will he be like? How will he take to life in Canada? These questions are uppermost in Ivan's and Gramp's minds as they go to meet the new arrival at Yorkton station. Lonely and frightened, Levko finds many things about Canada strange. He can hardly believe that he need not register with the police, and that he can go anywhere whenever he wants to, provided he has the money. When Frank Warnichuck is elected to Parliament, Levko expects him to turn into a petty tyrant.

For his part, Levko puts many a riddle before the bewildered Warnichuck family. He goes off for a day on their prize horse, sets out for Winnipeg after

one driving lesson, and establishes a routine of disappearing at regular intervals without a word. Finally, a letter arrives from the boy's parents in Germany, who had been believed dead, and Levko's mysterious behavior is explained. By this time he has adjusted himself to his new life, has come to like the farm and the animals, and has become a member of the Warnichuck family in the true sense of the word.

MEEK, S. P., Col. *Pierre of the Big Top*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 203 pp. \$3. Pierre's mother was a circus performer. He was born in the circus—right under the bandstand—and his master was a big-top acrobat. So it was only natural that this lively, clever gray poodle should become part of a circus act. He was quick to learn and even added several smart tricks of his own invention. When Pierre's master was badly injured in the collapse of his equipment during a practice session, the other performers rallied around to help. They also offered to add Pierre to their various acts, from being a clown dog to going through their ring routine with the elephants. Pierre had ingratiated himself with the "mammoth pachyderm" trainer by becoming friends with the crankiest of the lot and even perching on his head at the start of the Grand Parade one day! But Pierre's master staunchly refused to give up his loyal poodle—or his hope of returning to the big top as a star performer with him.

MIERS, E. S. *Ball of Fire*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company. 1956. 220 pp. \$2.50. Pony League Champs! That's the title Turkey Saunders and the rest of the Northfield All Stars want, but they know it won't be easy to win. Their first practice games reveal to Coach Buzz Kyler that the team is not yet a team. Even the best players of the town's four teams will not automatically form a winning combination. The unquenchable good humor of boys like Lover Carmichael, Poke Johnson, and Sleepy Jones boosts the team's sagging spirits until Turkey regains his usual level-headedness and convinces the others that team play holds the key to championship ball.

MILLER, H. L. *Prize Plays for Teen-Agers*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc. 1956. 503 pp. \$5. This collection of royalty-free one-act plays is ideally suitable for junior and senior high school production. These 24 popular plays, appropriate for special and everyday occasions throughout the year combine the author's keen sense of humor and her flair for the dramatic in situation comedies which teenage actors and audiences enjoy. In addition to the general comedies, there are entertaining plays for Halloween, Veterans' Day, Book Week, Christmas, Thanksgiving, Valentine's Day, Lincoln's Birthday, Easter, Mother's Day, Washington's Birthday, Memorial Day, American Education Week, and Graduation. The staging requirements for these plays are simple. Most of the plays call for only one set (often a modern living room) and are easy to produce in classroom or assembly.

MORENUS, RICHARD. *The Hudson's Bay Company*. New York 22: Random House. 1956. 183 pp. \$1.50. Into the unknown and mysterious Northwest territories went the hardy "voyageurs" of the Hudson's Bay Company. The strong young men seeking adventure and fur—the rich treasure of the North! First came Pierre Radisson, tanned and hardened by the endless treks, the fearsome labor of traveling hundreds of miles through harsh and savage countryside. After Radisson came others—Kelsey, D'Iberville and Hearn—tough and courageous men, fated to conquer a wilderness and to create a new land. Here is the story of the Hudson's Bay Company, the story of

Canada itself. From the middle of the seventeenth century to the middle of the nineteenth—nearly two hundred years—the Old and the New Worlds battled with the broad expanse of Canada as a pawn, while men in the backwoods conquered the brutal wilderness, making their new territory the richest in the world.

NEAL, H. E. *Nature's Guardians*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1956. 192 pp. \$3.50. Here is a book of interest to the young man of high-school or college age who is beginning to think seriously about his future. Not only is there complete information about opportunities in conservation, but also guiding principles for selecting a profession in line with his interests, talents, and educational plans. The high-school student will learn what subjects to study in college to fit himself for a career in conservation. The college man will discover how to channel his education toward a definite goal through the wide selection of possibilities open to him.

NOLAN, J. C. *Benedict Arnold, Traitor to his Country*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1956. 190 pp. \$2.95. From early boyhood, Arnold was obsessed by dreams of wealth. He fought his way to prosperity and became the owner of a fleet of trading ships. When the King's taxes became oppressive, Arnold joined the Continental Army not to save his country, but to save his ships. Though his motives were selfish, he became one of the greatest heroes of the Revolution. With Ethan Allen, he forced the surrender of Fort Ticonderoga; captured a British sloop; patrolled and controlled Lake Champlain; and halted the advance of the British fleet. At the decisive battle of Bemis Heights, Arnold's bravery brought him world fame. A military genius trusted and honored by George Washington, he became Commander of West Point. But it was rumored that Benedict Arnold became rich at public expense, that he was involved in smuggling. Embittered by what he called slander, but greedy for more money, Arnold secretly switched his allegiance to Britain and for the sum of \$50,000 agreed to reveal information leading to the capture of West Point and the betrayal of George Washington.

OLSEN, G. A. *Strength of Materials*, second edition. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 456 pp. \$5.25. This book is designed for use principally in technical institutes, college extension courses, trade schools, and colleges offering courses in strength of materials where calculus is not a needed or required subject. The fundamental principles of design are presented with an emphasis on practicality. Mere formula substitution has been discouraged by including all derivations and a discussion of their assumptions and limitations. An attempt has also been made to provide problems related to all branches of engineering and include many drawn from the author's broad industrial experience.

Several teaching aids included are a large number of illustrated problems, use of Mohr's circle in the study of combined stresses, and explanatory remarks in statics wherever pertinent to the solution of problems. The review material on statics, center of gravity and moment of inertia, presented in Chapters 1 and 2, prepares the student for the subjects that follow. Omission of this material should be permitted only when no doubt exists as to its familiarity.

A comparison of the various codes utilized in riveted joint design, and recent changes in design stresses for riveted and welded joints are discussed. The various types of welded joints are studied in more detail than is usual. In the study of shear—and bending—moment diagrams, the application of the shear-

area method has been stressed in securing maximum bending moments. Continued reference is made to the C-T couple as being synonymous with the bending moment. Simple algebraic summation is employed in the derivation of the flexure formula.

The two theorems of moment area are used in the derivation of all deflection formulas presented. The study of maximum deflection is included in the treatment of moment area. With the material presented, any type of restrained beam problem may be solved. The study of columns shows how the various values found in straight-line, Gordon-Rankine, and parabolic formulas—with their limits—will vary as different materials and end conditions are encountered. The handbook of the American Institute of Steel Construction is used throughout as a reference.

PATTON, D. H., and E. M. JOHNSON. *Spelling for Word Mastery*. Textbooks for Grade 7 and Grade 8. Columbus 6, Ohio: Chas. E. Merrill Books, 1250 Fairwood Ave. 1956. 128 pp. ea. \$1.20 each. These two textbooks for grades 7 and 8 are parts of a 7-volume series beginning with grade 2. Each of these textbooks is also available in a consumable (Skilltext) edition at 64 cents each. Likewise, a *Teacher's Manual* is available for each of the seven books in the series at 75 cents each, but free with class orders. Each book is illustrated in full color. In the development of these texts, attention is given to readiness, training, diagnosis, review, handwriting, phonics and word analysis, meaning of word in content, dictionary use, testing, learning procedures, research finding, teacher aids, illustrations, and format.

PRICE, LUCIEN, editor. *Dialogues of Alfred North Whitehead*. New York 22: New American Library. 1956. 320 pp. The wit and wisdom of a great philosopher. A Mentor Book.

RATHJEN, C. H. *Ken Tompkins—Animal Doctor*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 279 pp. \$2.75. Readers will learn many valuable things applicable to their own daily lives—how to care for pets, how to break up a dogfight, how to behave safely around horses and other big animals, how to give first aid to pets—and also to human beings. Some of the exciting episodes are: the rescue of a drowning horse; tense drama and delighted laughter when Ken and his pal and fellow student, Mitch, work with a circus; hair-raising suspense in a zoo when they attempt to treat a gorilla, which is the most dangerous of all wild animals; a gripping climax when a tornado rips through a state fair, endangering human and animal life. There are many other thrilling sequences portraying the little-known but broad scope of the invaluable work performed daily by doctors of veterinary medicine, not only for the benefit of the animals that they treat, but also for the humans affected by those animals; as, for example, in the field of cattle inspection. There is the heart-warming service to devoted pets, too.

READ, HERBERT, compiler. *This Way, Delight*. New York 14: Pantheon Books, Inc. 1956. 155 pp. \$3.50. The editor of this anthology of poetry for the young is a distinguished poet, writer, and critic. As the title indicates, he has chosen as keynote for his selection the word "delight." His aim is to introduce young readers to poetry whose inspiration is within the realm of their experience—which is not necessarily poetry written especially for children.

RIESENBERG, FELIX. *Balboa: Swordsman and Conquistador*. New York 22: Random House. 1956. 178 pp. \$1.50. This is a popularized story of Balboa, the swordsman and conquistador—another of the popular Landmark

books. The book is based on known facts except in a few instances which the author enumerates in his foreword. The story, while based on documented history, has been simplified somewhat and dramatized. This has been done not only to make for better reading but also to point up the courage and resourcefulness needed to make Balboa's great discovery which remains unique in the history of mankind.

ROBERTS, D. M. *Partners with Youth*. New York City 7: Association Press. 1956. 175 pp. \$3.50. Any adult interested in making teen idealism count can adapt these 29 successful adult-youth projects and programs to help solve neighborhood, community, or state-wide problems. Vandalism, narcotics, traffic safety, teen employment, citizenship education—these are typical targets at which these activities were aimed, with several continuing currently.

ROBERTS, R. M. *Scout*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, 101 5th Ave. 1956. 155 pp. 35¢. A novel based on the life and deeds of an actual U.S. Army Scout of 1870 in an Indian war on the plains of the West.

STRECKER, E. A. and V. T. LATHBURY. *Their Mothers' Daughters*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 256 pp. \$3.75. The authors as psychiatrists turn their attention to the hazards and pitfalls of the mother-daughter relationship. Sympathetically, the authors probe the motivations of every mother's dealings with her daughters. They delve into the minds of the dominating mother, the overly protective mother, and many others. Nor are fathers ignored; their role in the upbringing of their daughters is carefully studied. In a thought-provoking manner, the way is pointed to a rewarding solution to the age-old parent-daughter dilemma. This is a book that should be read by all parents who desire a full and mature life for their daughters. The authors speak frankly and directly; their observations represent years of vast experience in psychiatry.

VANCE, JACK. *To Live Forever*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, 101 5th Ave. 1956. 185 pp. 35¢. Discusses a world where status lengthens the individual life span—an utterly fantastic world peopled with human beings whose weaknesses, ambitions, desires, and strengths are as real as life itself.

VIDAL, GORE, editor. *Best Television Plays*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. 250 pp. Hardbound, \$2.75; paperbound, 35¢. Contains eight complete one-hour TV plays.

WALDEN, A. E. *My Sister Mike*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 188 pp. \$2.75. Mike Patterson could do at least one thing better than any of her friends—she could stand way out in the center of a basketball court and send a hook shot zooming straight into the basket. Basketball was her great enthusiasm. Her beautiful sister Pat was very popular, but Mike felt no particular jealousy. She had convinced herself that she was not interested in dating. Then Jeff Parker walked into Mike's life. There he was, big-time athlete and member of the exclusive V.I.P. Club—and he was asking her for a date. Mike, who had never had a *bona fide* date, was overwhelmed. When she discovered that the date was part of an initiation dare, Mike was at first bitter, but then she decided to handle the situation in her own way. Her decision was the beginning of a new way of thinking and living for her.

WALDMAN, FRANK. *Lucky Bat Boy*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company. 1956. 216 pp. \$2.75. From the first pitch in the season's opening game to the final out of the World Series, baseball was young Billy Carmichael's

only interest. His enthusiasm for the game exceeded ordinary limits, so it was not surprising when a chain of unusual events involved him closely in major-league matters. For suddenly he found he was bat boy for a pennant contender, and it was the luckiest thing that had happened to him in all his fifteen years.

WEDGWOOD, C. V. *Oliver Cromwell*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 144 pp. \$1.50. This is the story of the life of the Great Protector—of his sensational rise to become the most powerful single individual in Modern British history.

WELCH, RONALD. *Ferdinand Magellan*. New York 10: Criterion Books, Inc., 257 Fourth Avenue. 1956. 178 pp. \$3. The indomitable spirit of the famous Portuguese sea captain who commanded the first expedition to sail around the world comes alive in this new biography. Here is the young Magellan, sailing and fighting on the first Portuguese ships which carved out a new empire in the mysterious Far East. And here is the battle-hardened, matured sea captain in the service of the King of Spain, setting sail for the western oceans in 1519, finding a passage around South America and striking out into the uncharted waters of the Pacific in search of China and the spice islands of the East.

WICKENDEN, DAN. *The Amazing Vacation*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 216 pp. \$2.95. When Ricky and Joanna went to spend the summer with Uncle Hubert, Aunt Cordelia, and Cousin Emmeline, they expected a quiet time of croquet and reading. But then how could they know of Uncle Hubert's remarkable window, or that the extraordinary housekeeper, Mrs. Breadloaf, would show them the way through it into the country without a name? There was no question but that they must go through the window—never forgetting this warning: they would have to come back with every single thing they had taken with them or they would never again quite belong to the everyday world. That is what had happened to Emmeline, who had lost her turquoise while she was there ten years ago. Now only Ricky and Joanna were young enough to help her retrieve it. This strange and wonderful quest led them a merry chase from the Isthmus of Bab'-au-Rhum to the ghost town of Triple Peak, where the Society of Wizards and Sorcerers held forth. The ancient Indian Matinkatunk and the romantic porpentine Federico proved devoted friends, but even they could not always save the two children from snares set by Queen Matildagarde of the Outer Hinterland, King Willexander of the Lower Uplands, or the wily Yarrow.

WOLLHEIM, D. A. *One Against the Moon*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company. 1956. 220 pp. \$2.75. Trapped in an underground cavern of the moon, young Robin Carew faced possible death—alone! Starvation was postponed only briefly. He had the two rabbits and a monkey which had accompanied him in the untested atomic rocket not designed for human passengers. Rescue was unlikely. No one had discovered him hidden within the rocket before the blast-off. He could rely only on himself. From the moment this latter-day Robinson Crusoe discovers edible plants within the lightless cavern, hope of survival grows in him. An underground river leads him to other caverns, where he encounters weird animals and another being—one who speaks an incomprehensible language. Thus begins a series of remarkable adventures for Robin, climaxed by the arrival of a second rocket that brings both danger and good fortune.

ZEISER, BENNO. *The Road to Stalingrad*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. 152 pp. Hardbound, \$2.75; paperbound, 85¢. An eye witness account of that lost battle.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

ABEL, O. R. *The Linotype Operator*. Cambridge 38: Bellman Publishing Company, Box 172. 1956. 32 pp. \$1. One of a series of monographs in the Vocational and Professional Monograph series, this particular one covers such areas of interest to a prospective linotype operator as the working conditions one might find in such a career, suggested course of study outline, the educational and physical requirements necessary for success in such a job choice, and the employment outlook, including average pay-scale.

AMERICAN CANCER SOCIETY. *Cancer News*. New York 19: The Society, 521 W. 57th Street. 1956. 24 pp. This illustrated booklet is a compilation of actual facts concerning the disease, current research projects, danger signals, and efforts being made by the Society to take cancer's story to all the people. It includes a discussion of popular misconceptions abroad today regarding cancer.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION. *The Strength To Meet Our National Need*. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. 1956. 125 pp. \$1.50. A report to the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School, it relates the proceedings of a meeting of the constituent member organizations of the Council in Washington in March 1956. Report represents a compilation of remarks by leaders in the field of education who appeared at the meeting, both as speakers and panel members. The Conference was held following a proposal by President Eisenhower that such a meeting take place for the purpose of presenting to the President's Committee an analysis of issues and problems in higher education.

AMERICAN HEART ASSOCIATION. *How the Doctor Examines Your Heart*. New York 10: The Association, 44 East 23rd Street. 1956. 31 pp. Describes, in illustrated form, the importance of a heart examination as a life-and health-saving procedure, and includes an explanation of the various definitions of a "complete heart examination," which varies according to the age, physical condition, and health background of the patient.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF PACIFIC RELATIONS. *Books on South-east Asia: A Select Bibliography*. New York 22: The Institute, One East 54th Street. 1956. 43 pp. 50¢. (Mimeo). A revised edition intended to provide sources in its subject field which recognizes new Western concern for, and interest in, the region. Concentrates on historical, political, economic, and social subjects.

THE AMERICAN JEWISH COMMITTEE. *Civil Liberties and Civil Rights in the United States Today*. New York 16: Department of Community Affairs, The Committee. 1956. 36 pp. 25¢. A selected bibliography of material available on civil liberties and civil rights prepared by the Committee's Library of Jewish Information. Includes current and general reference material.

THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION. *Latin in the Public Secondary Schools*. Madison 6: The Association, Bascom Hall, University of Wisconsin. 16 pp. Reprinted from the *Classical Journal*, Vol. 51—March, April, May, 1956. Represents results of an investigation into the present status of

the teaching of Latin conducted by the Committee on Education Training and Trends of the American Philological Association. The survey findings are reported statistically and show the number of schools offering Latin as a course, a severe shortage of Latin teachers, and a notable trend toward the choice of a two-year-only Latin course. Recommendations are offered for solutions for breaking this trend toward a general de-emphasis on the subject of Latin in the curriculum. Also available from the American Philological Association are (1) a two-page memorandum outlining the problem as set forth in this booklet; and (2) a four-page leaflet on *Latin in the Modern Curriculum*.

Annual Meeting. Washington 25, D. C.: The President's Committee on Employment of the Physically Handicapped. 1956. 91 pp. Minutes of the meeting held in May 1956 containing facts and figures on employment of physically handicapped workers. Intended to provide source material for those interested in working with and for the handicapped in preparation of speeches, articles, and editorials. Valuable reading both to volunteers and professionals concerned with this endeavor. The following other publications are available from the same source:

Community Interest and Organization. 6 pp. A summary of proceedings at a regional meeting of the President's Committee in Chicago in November 1955.

Employer Roundtable. 20 pp. Some questions and answers on employing the handicapped, as reported during the regional meeting mentioned immediately above.

Here's What They Say. 13 pp. Quotes from leaders in all fields of endeavor favoring employment of the handicapped.

Key to Independence. 4 pp. Lists reasons for hiring the handicapped and quotes favorable opinions of four leaders in the fields of business and labor.

NEPH Newsletter. 2 pp. A special communication to members, state chairmen, and secretaries of the President's Committee.

Spotlight on Ability. 10 pp. Lists the President's Committee objectives for 1956-57 and necessary measures to accomplish these ends. Lists available films and new materials, and suggests methods for proper use of speakers in furthering the success of the employment of the handicapped program.

Annual Report of the State Board of Education of New Jersey. Trenton 25: New Jersey Department of Education. 1956. 17 pp. A report of the Legislature of New Jersey for the school year 1954-56. Summarizes activities and projects of the New Jersey State Department of Education; discusses new problems and suggested solutions; lists departmental changes and highlights of the school year.

Annual Statistical Report of the Superintendent of Schools. Cincinnati, Ohio: Office of the Superintendent, Cincinnati Public Schools, May 1956. 48 pp. Report for school year 1954-55. Statistics offered in following areas: pupil personnel, professional and Civil Service staff, summer and evening schools, building and finance, and expenditures. Also discussed are types of schools in Cincinnati system, school calendar, summary of number of schools by type of organization and grades included, and changes in organization of specified schools.

APPLEGARTH, M. T., D. T. DAILY, and B. S. WOLFE. *Four Playettes.* New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1956. 40 pp. 50¢. The

four playettes are "Were You There?" "Home Sweet Home," "Displaced," and "Watch Your Step." Also available from the same source is *Not by Night* (1956. 40 pp. 50¢), a one-act play dealing with Southeast Asia.

Assignment Junior High School. Philadelphia: Board of Public Education, Parkway at 21st St. 1956. 50 pp. Prepared to help new teachers appointed to the Philadelphia junior high school. It will be used as a discussion guide and as a continuing help throughout the beginning weeks and months. Content presented in six parts: Know Your School, Study the Pupils, Provide the Atmosphere, Plan Your Work, Be Professional, and Off to a Good Start.

Australia in Facts and Figures. Canberra, Australia: Australian News and Information Bureau, Department of the Interior. 80 pp. An official account of Australian policy, economy, and administration during the September quarter, 1955. Also available is a booklet covering similar Australian information for the December quarter, 1955.

BARNARD, J. D. *Teaching High-School Science.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1956. 32 pp. 25¢. Number 10 of a series on *What Research Says to the Teacher*, jointly produced by the NEA Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association. The author has attempted to draw from research materials on high-school science which promise to be of most help to classroom teachers. Such questions as the following are discussed: Why teach science? What science should be taught? What methods should be used? How should the materials and facilities be used? and How does one become a successful science teacher?

BETTS, E. A. *What About Spelling.* Haverford, Pennsylvania: The Betts Reading Clinic, 257 West Montgomery Avenue. 1956. 16 pp. 75¢. Describes methods for testing spelling knowledge and for estimating spelling levels. Also suggests scoring criteria and methods which may be used to assist students in recognition of incorrectly spelled words.

Bibliography of Free and Inexpensive Materials for Economic Education. New York 36: Joint Council on Education. 1956. 48 pp. 50¢. Divided into two sections: the first is a list of available publications, arranged alphabetically according to the issuing organization with each publication coded and indicating the subject under which it should be classified; the second half describes the composition, purpose, and function of each issuing organization. A special feature in the current bibliography is a chart, which describes visually the elementary steps a student needs to take in gathering information for a research paper.

Bibliography of Teaching Aids on America's Forests and Forest Industries. Washington 6, D. C.: American Forest Products Industries, Inc., 1816 N Street, N. W. 1956. 14 pp. Contains listings of free forestry teaching aids available to schools. Bibliography is published annually for the opening of the new school year, and contains descriptive material and information on use of material by grade level and quantity available.

BRUMBAUGH, A. J., and MYRON R. BLEE. (*Recommendations and General Staff Report on Higher Education and Florida's Future.*) Vol. I Gainesville: University of Florida Press. 1956. 87 pp. \$1.50. Embodies facts about Florida's colleges and universities, about impending demands for higher education, and presents guidelines whereby Florida can develop and support a system of higher education to meet its emerging needs.

CIVIL DEFENSE EDUCATION PROJECT. *Education for National Survival.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 88 pp. 65¢. A handbook on civil defense for schools prepared by the Project, a division of the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Information and procedures essential to the development of school protection plans and programs. This publication's primary purpose is to alert and enlighten children, youth, and adults to the need for being prepared to meet natural and man-made disasters and to minimize their serious consequences.

COLONIAL WILLIAMSBURG. *Report by the President for the year 1955.* 46 pp. Williamsburg, Va.: Colonial Williamsburg. Contains a listing of the administrative organization responsible for running this restored town. In addition, it relates its historical background and describes new projects and buildings slated for the future.

COMMITTEE FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT. *Toward a Healthier Farm Economy.* New York 3: The Committee, 444 Madison Ave. 1956. 16 pp. This reprint of an address by J. Cameron Thomson, vice chairman of the Committee (CED), before the Kiwanis Club of St. Paul, Minnesota, June 1956, outlines Mr. Thomson's and CED's analysis of the farm problem today. Offers suggestions for bringing about its steady improvement as a "substitute . . . for annual crisis and political turmoil."

COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL INTERCHANGE POLICY. *Orientation of Foreign Students.* New York 21: The Committee, 1 East 6th St., at Fifth Ave. 1956. 18 pp. Contains recommendations for improving the foreign exchange system by attempting a clarification of the value of the program, its standards and objectives. Outlines common problems and difficulties encountered, and aims and methods of orientation.

COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS. *It Decorates . . . Most Flowerly.* Washington 6, D. C.: The Committee, National Education Association. 1956. 16 pp. Relates the Korean chapter in the story of the NEA Overseas Teacher Fund (OTF) by describing the organization of the Korean program of the OTF, the material and moral support given, and what the endeavor meant to U.S.-Korean good will.

CONFERENCE BOARD OF ASSOCIATED RESEARCH COUNCILS. *Educational Exchanges—Aspects of the American Experience.* Washington, D. C.: National Academy of Sciences, National Research Council. 1956. 74 pp. Report of a conference sponsored by the Committee on International Exchange of Persons of the Conference Board, covering the scope of present activities and types of exchange programs under the present system of educational exchange. Includes a report of discussions on programs at a Princeton, New Jersey, conference in December of 1954, as well as estimates of future needs and opportunities and an analysis of some of the problems that exist in these programs.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. *Science and Mathematics Teaching in New Jersey Public High Schools.* Jersey City 5: The College Bookstore, New Jersey State Teachers College, 1956. 17 pp. 25¢. A study intended to present preliminary data basic to a broad program for improvement of science and mathematics offerings in the secondary schools of New Jersey. School administrators, teachers, personnel of institutions training teachers, and representatives of industry were contacted during the course of this study, making possible a comprehensive and authoritative review of current practices, and an

accurate evaluation of problems present within the science-mathematics program field.

Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education. Washington 25, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. 1956. 41 pp. Summary of statistical and financial information for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1955, of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, stressing the administrative aspects of vocational education. Discusses the specific subjects of agricultural, home economics, trade and industrial, and distributive education. There is also a section on vocational guidance.

DUNHAM, FRANKLIN, and R. R. LOWDERMILK. *Television in our Schools.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 38 pp. 20¢. Outlines teaching potentials of television. Stresses combined value of sight and sound in the learning process, both within and outside the classroom.

DYER, H. S., ROBERT RALIN, and F. M. FORD. *Problems in Mathematical Education.* Princeton, New Jersey: Education Testing Service. 1956. 50 pp. \$1. Attempts to define these problems, with a view toward discovering the kinds of research activities which would lead to better mathematics courses and teaching in the elementary and secondary schools.

Education and Juvenile Delinquency. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 136 pp. An interim report of the subcommittee investigating juvenile delinquency to the Committee on the Judiciary—a part of the investigation of juvenile delinquency in the United States.

Education for Gifted Children and Youth. Hartford: Connecticut State Department of Education. 1956. 39 pp. In quantity orders, 15¢ each. Intended as a guide to teachers and administrators in planning programs especially slanted for the bright and talented pupil. Ways and means by which the gifted may be identified are outlined, as well as the role that may be played by various groups and resources within the educational and community structure.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION: *Manpower and Education.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1956. 128 pp. Cloth bound \$1.75; paper bound \$1.25. Prepared jointly by the Commission and the American Association of School Administrators. Discusses America's manpower problem, the areas of manpower shortage and the under-used sources of potential manpower, covers subjects of the impact of the situation on education and on guidance and personnel services in educational institutions, with particular emphasis on the importance of educating the gifted student.

Educational Program—Minneapolis Junior High Schools. Minneapolis: Minneapolis Public Schools, The Minneapolis Vocational School Print Shop. 1956. 34 pp. 35¢. Discusses purposes and objectives of the junior high school. Intended to serve as an orientation guide for sixth-grade pupils as they enter the junior high school, it is anticipated as well that parents will gain a better perspective of the over-all junior high-school program and that use of the publication should result in a more uniform and consistent program in all junior high schools of the city. Includes chapters on student information and student services, opportunities for student participation in school affairs, and subject programming.

EISENBERG, LARRY. *Fun and Festival from the United States and Canada.* New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1956. 48 pp. 50¢. Lists and describes American and Canadian holidays, suggests planning and

food ideas for these occasions, and gives samples of suitable musical and game activities.

Ethical Culture Schools. New York 23: The Board of Governors, The Schools, 33 Central Park West. 24 pp. A catalogue containing a statement of the schools' philosophy and their history, a recent summary evolving from seventy-eight years of the schools' experience, and a discussion of special projects which the ECS would like to share with other schools.

The Family and the Community: Each Shapes the Other . . . The P.T.A. Serves Both. Chicago 11: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 700 N. Rush St. 1956. 23 pp. Free. Contains suggestions which concern utilization of all community resources and co-operation among community agencies in solving community problems.

Forest Hills Guide. Forest Hills 75, New York: The Guidance Department, Forest Hills High School. 1956. 144 pp. Contains material to help orient the incoming pupil to his new school environment. Student activities, department program offerings, and program information requirements for graduation are just a few of the topics covered. Particular attention is given to the subjects of college guidance, scholarships, and career information.

FREEMAN, LUCY. *Better Human Relations—The Challenge of Social Work.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th St. 1956. 28 pp. 25¢. This pamphlet, prepared in co-operation with the Council on Social Work Education, stresses the tremendous need for trained social workers throughout the nation, and the importance of professional skill, professional attitudes, and professional knowledge in pursuance of such a career.

Friendship Map: Makers of the U.S.A. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1956. (Size 30" x 40") \$1. (10½" x 18½" size, \$1 for 12). A beautiful picture map portraying the peoples of our country and the wide variety of their contributions. Also available from the same source, is *South-east Asia* (30" x 40", 75¢; smaller map 75¢ for 12). A beautiful map in color presenting this section of the earth's surface as it would appear to a man above it.

GAITHER, H. R., JR. *The Ford Foundation and Foreign Affairs.* New York: The Ford Foundation. 1956. 12 pp. An address delivered by the Foundation president, Mr. Gaither, at the twenty-five-year service dinner of Dunwoody Industrial Institute at Minneapolis. Describes current Foundation programs, their purposes, and their activities.

GENERAL MOTORS TECHNICAL CENTER. *The Greatest Frontier.* Detroit: The Center. May 1956. 30 pp. Remarks at the dedication program of the Center by top officials of General Motors and by President Eisenhower. Purpose of the Center is described as being that of furtherance of technological progress, with emphasis on the continuing need for research and trained personnel in the fields of science and engineering and their allied subjects.

A Guide to School Business Services. San Diego, California: Office of the Superintendent of Schools, 209 Civic Center. 1956. 178 pp. Covers such areas as purchasing practices, cafeteria organization, board policies and administrative procedures, recommended bookkeeping and accounting procedures for all phases of school business activity, including suggested sample forms successfully used by San Diego schools.

Health Education Materials. Chicago 6: National Dairy Council, 111 North Canal St. 1956. 35 pp. Free. Lists, describes, and prices materials published by the council and prepared for classroom use.

HEILBRONER, R. L. *This Growing World.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street. 1956. 28 pp. 25¢. Tells the story of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development—known as the World Bank.

Hints to Teaching Electricity and Electronics. Washington 7, D. C.: Dumville Manufacturing Company, 2416-39th St., N.W. 1956. 51 pp. \$1. Contains hints for classroom and laboratory instruction through use of the Electronics Educator Method. Suggests methods of teaching the subject of electricity and discusses basic electric principles of importance to the pre-electronics student. Lists technical classroom equipment necessary in teaching of electricity and electronics.

HUGHES, OTTO, and VIRGIL E. SCHOOLER. *A Survey of Athletics in the Secondary Schools of the North Central Association.* Bloomington: Indiana University Bookstore. 1956. 52 pp. \$1. A bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University. Study represents analysis of questionnaire replies by over 2,100 high-school principals, all members of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Questionnaire used in this study was developed by the Educational Policies Commission and compilation of the results contained therein cover such areas as purpose, organization, administration, and facilities for school athletics; intramural and interscholastic activities; proper personnel in supervisory and administrative capacities; community relations.

International Co-operation on the Seven Seas. New York: United Nations. 1956. 28 pp. 15¢. Deals with an aspect of the oceans—how various organs of the UN and the specialized agencies are concerned with the sea and with the ways in which it obliges men to plan and work together.

The International Educational Exchange Program, 1955. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 56 pp. 25¢. Covers major accomplishments of the program, January through June 1955, the relationship of this cultural exchange program to American foreign policy, program administration and co-operation with other agencies, and the scope of activities in participating countries.

JOHNSTON, M. C. *Education in Mexico.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 135 pp. 55¢. Gives background information on the country, as well as a description of its educational organization and administration, outlining its programs of study. Included are statistical and tabular data concerning educational and geographic facts about Mexico.

KIRKENDALL, L. A. *Too Young to Marry.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th Street. 1956. 28 pp. 25¢. Discusses the increasing number of early marriages in recent years and the questions of social policy which arise as a result. Advice is offered on methods of coping with the various problems which accompany this trend. Its advantages and disadvantages are analyzed, and the conclusion reached that young people are the victims of many misconceptions regarding the basis of a sound marriage.

LAMBORN, R. L. *Must They Be "Crazy, Mixed-up Kids"?* McDonogh, Maryland: The McDonogh School. 8 pp. A leaflet reprint of an article appearing recently in the *New York Times Magazine*. The author is headmaster of the McDonogh School. He has specialized in guidance for boys, and in this article

he deplores the pressure on present-day youth, through literature, movies, etc. to be "crazy, mixed-up kids" or suffer the consequences by being dubbed "different." Lamborn stresses the proven fact that today's average adolescent is a solid, idealistic citizen despite adult propaganda to the contrary.

LATOURETTE, K. S. *Introducing Buddhism*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1956. 64 pp. 60¢. Describes the background of this Asiatic religion, including a review of the life and teachings of its founder. A survey of how one of the world's major religions came to be and what it means to its followers today.

LEHRMAN, HAL. *Portrait of Israel—Myth and Reality*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th St. 1956. 28 pp. 25¢. Surveys the strengths, weaknesses, problems, and opportunities of the new state and finds "the Israelis a people like any other, with the usual strengths and frailties, with no monopoly on good or evil."

MACVITTIE, R. W. *Handbook for Substitute Teachers*. Minneapolis 15: Burgess Publishing Company. 1956. 40 pp. \$1. A handbook to help substitute teachers to become better acquainted with the kind of service which they will need to supply in the public elementary schools. Over two-thousand substitute teachers, regular teachers, elementary school principals, and school superintendents assisted in this study, contributing to the clarification of problems and their solutions. Job orientation, responsibilities, professional relations, methods of selection and assignment—all are covered. Particular emphasis is placed on the matter of integration of the work of the substitute teacher with that of the regular teacher, with suggestions offered for meeting the problem. The role of the substitute teacher is emphasized as one for more than that of "baby sitter" and should be handled accordingly, with a view toward encouraging a more highly professional type of substitute teacher service.

MANUEL, H. T. *Taking a Test*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company. 1956. 77 pp. Contains aids to students in taking test. Contains sample tests devised to give practice with different ways of recording answers, practice in finding and keeping the place in the test, etc.

MANUFACTURING CHEMISTS' ASSOCIATION. *Supply and Need of Scientists and Engineers—1955-65*. Washington 6, D. C.: The Association, 1625 Eye St., N.W. 1956. 8 pp. A study of the probable needs of the nation and of the chemical industry for technical and scientific graduates, and of the probable supply by 1965. Included are rough statistical estimations of these needs.

The Medical Technologist. Boston 15: Simmons College. 1956. 4 pp. One of the series of guidance bulletins published by Simmons College and available to high-school principals; published eleven times a year.

Migratory Workers and Their Families' Problems and Programs, 1950-56. Washington 25, D. C.: U.S. Department of Labor. 1956. 16 pp. A selected list of references on the living and working conditions of domestic agricultural workers and their families—arranged by states.

The Mutual Security Program—Fiscal Year 1956. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 82 pp. A summary presentation, as of April 1956, including the President's message to Congress on the Mutual Security Program, a discussion of the continuing need for such a program, and of the program functions by region. Also contains statistical information on fund appropriations.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES. *The Biological Effects of Atomic Radiation.* Washington, D. C.: The Academy. 1956. 108 pp. A compilation of reports from an Academy study giving technical findings and recommendations of six committees, totaling in membership more than one-hundred qualified individuals. Contains facts regarding biological effects of atomic radiations from the following points of view: genetics, pathology, meteorology, oceanography and fisheries, agriculture and food supplies, and the disposal and dispersal of radioactive wastes. Also available is a 40-page digest and summary of this material, designed for public consumption.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. *1956 Yearbook.* New York 10: Division of Christian Education, the Council, 257 Fourth Ave. 1956. 140 pp. \$2.50. Contains reports, minutes, and roster of the Division's activities for the year 1956. Includes directories of Division's official bodies and committees; statistics and charts on church membership changing population figures and their relation to church membership, etc.; and a schedule of future Division events.

Network Practices. New York: Columbia Broadcasting System. 1956. 209 pp. A memorandum supplementing statement of Frank Stanton, President of CBS, prepared for the Senate Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce by CBS, June 1956. Covers such areas as the role of the networks in television and their functions and nature; the internal and external economics of networking in revenues, expenditures, profits, and as an advertising medium; and the charges against the networks and proposals for change. Also available from the same source is an analysis of Senator John W. Bricker's report entitled *The Network Monopoly.*

PAQUIN, L. G., and M. D. IRISH. *Tests for The People Govern.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1956. 59 pp. 48¢. Eleven tests for end of unit testing to go with the textbook *The People Govern.*

Partners for Health. New York 19: The Equitable Life Assurance Society of the United States. 1955. 40 pp. Contains suggestions for those interested in pursuing a career in the field of health.

People and Timber. Washington 25, D. C.: Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture. 1956. 20 pp. Free. A condensed summary of the *Timber Resource Reviews*, a 3-year study, a comprehensive report on our current timber situation. Of interest to teachers and libraries since it gives in concise form the significant facts brought out by the *Review.*

Person-to-Person. Washington 25, D. C.: National Education Association. 1956. 48 pp. 75¢. Contains more than 150 examples of ways a teacher can improve his public relations in an out of the classroom. A companion tool, *Swim Those Channels* (25¢ each for 14 copies—one for each character), a dramatic skit, an easy-to-perform presentation for faculty meetings, workshops, and any occasion where teachers gather to discuss public relations problems. Also available from the same source are *Let's Go to Press* (a classroom teacher's guide to school news reporting, 75¢) and *Yesterday at NEA* (32 pp. 25¢).

The Public Schools, Religion, and Values. Lexington, Kentucky: Bureau of School Services, College of Education, University of Kentucky. 1956. 51 pp. \$1. A series of addresses by well-known educators on the teaching of moral and spiritual values in public schools.

QUATTLEBAUM, C. A. *Federal Aid to Students for Higher Education.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 191 pp. Report

prepared in response to requests by members of Congress for a roundup of background informational material on the subject of Federal aid to students for higher education. Material was gathered from numerous sources, including officials in the executive branch of the Federal government, state government, and foreign country officials. It was collated in order that the finished product could provide a reference basis in the consideration of pending Congressional bills, the drafting of new ones, and formation of policy relating to requests for financial assistance.

Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1610 Washtenaw Ave. 1956. 97 pp. The Center has endeavored to present a complete and up-to-date review of the nation-wide status of the educational television movement, as well as an accurate analysis of its current status in the state of New York, for which the report was originally prepared.

Report of the Theodore Roosevelt Centennial Commission. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 12 pp. Copy of a report submitted to Congress having to do with the planning of the observance, in 1958, of the 100th anniversary of the birth of Theodore Roosevelt. It is designed to enlist the co-operation of organizations and individuals in this project, and stresses not only the contributions made by Theodore Roosevelt to our nation's progress, but also the adaptability of his philosophies and teachings to life as we know it today.

RESEARCH DIVISION. *Class Size in the Elementary Schools of Urban School Districts, 1955-56.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1956. (July). 20 pp. 25¢. An up-to-date picture of elementary-school class size and restricted session in urban districts (districts with 2,500 or more population).

ROGERS, W. C. *Community Education in World Affairs.* Minneapolis 14: University of Minnesota Press. 1956. 86 pp. \$1.25. A booklet giving practical advice for community leaders who want to do something constructive about international relations. Based on author's wide experience in world affairs education, material includes suggestions for organizing groups for education and action in world affairs, methods of obtaining teachers, sources of pamphlets and films, and possibilities for financing and publicizing the activities of such organizations. Also describes sample programs and projects.

ROSS, HELEN. *The Shy Child.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th St. 1956. 28 pp. 25¢. Analyzes the causes of shyness and recommends methods of dealing with the shy child, both at home and at school.

SALANT, R. S. *Corporate Responsibility and Character.* New York: Columbia Broadcasting System, Inc. 10 pp. A discussion of the influence of "bigness" on the morality of a corporation as reflected in remarks by Mr. Salant, vice-president of CBS, in an address before CBS executives. This talk was intended as a self-analysis to express to corporate and division officers of CBS the standards and objectives of conduct which CBS has set for itself in all its activities.

SALISBURY, GORDON, and ROBERT SHERIDAN. *Catalog of Free Teaching Aids*, revised edition. Riverside, California: The authors, Box 943. 1956. 142 pp. \$1.50. Materials herein listed have been evaluated by accredited elementary- and secondary-school teachers. Items covered include free booklet titles, charts, posters, filmstrips, etc., and are selected for inclusion only if they

have direct bearing on the curriculum. Approximate reading grade levels are noted for all listings. Names and addresses of sources of all catalogued material are given.

SASSANI, A. H. K. *Education in Taiwan*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 34 pp. 20¢. A brief picture of the educational system in Taiwan at the present time.

SCHLOSS, SAMUEL, and C. J. HOBSON. *Summary of 1953-54 Statistics of State School Systems*. Washington 25, D. C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. 1956 (July). 9 pp. Data for the school year 1953-54 on elementary and secondary public day schools—school-age population, high-school graduates, staff, number of school districts and one-teacher schools, revenue, expenditure, and salary.

School Personnel Policies. Columbus 15: Ohio Education Association, 213 E. Broad Street. 1956. 42 pp. \$1. A handbook designed to assist school board members, administrators, teachers, and other school employees in the development of written school personnel policies.

Seat Belts for Passenger Cars. Washington 6, D. C.: American Automobile Association, 1712 G Street, N. W. 1956. 21 pp. Single copy free. Summary of information currently available on the subject. Also includes extensive list of manufacturers. Also available from the same source are the following publications, single copies free in each case:

Insurance Rates for Trained Drivers. 8 pp. This report gives an over-all view of insurance rates and how they are affected when a person under 25 drives the family car. The effect of a driver education course on the rates is also shown.

Report on Driving Errors. 4 pp. Road tests were given to over 10,000 drivers. This report shows the driving errors most frequently made. It will help driver education instructors by showing where the greatest emphasis is needed.

New Portable Brake Dual Control. 2-page brochure. The dual control described in this bulletin is simple to install. This will decrease the cost of supplying a dual control car. It can also be used by parents wishing to give their youngsters practice driving in addition to that received in school.

Research Report No. 57, Development of Sportmanlike Driving Tests. 4 pp. This explains the development of new tests for *Sportmanlike Driving*.

Sharing the Risk—An Approach to Family Economic Security. New York 22: Institute of Life Insurance, 488 Madison Avenue. 1956. 23 pp. Classroom quantities available to teachers free of charge, as well as a copy of the *Teacher's Guide*, which contains suggestions for use of the material and a bibliography of pertinent reference booklets and audio-visual aids. Booklet deals with problems of financial risk, its possible solutions, with special emphasis on life insurance. Described by the Institute of Life Insurance as "A Source Unit for Social Studies Classes."

Shortage of Scientific and Engineering Manpower. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 487 pp. A compilation of proceedings of Hearings before the Subcommittee on Research and Development of the Joint Committee on Atomic Energy of Congress. Reports testimony regarding present and future shortages of technically trained manpower in this country, and points to the urgency of the problem.

Some Facts About Public State Training Schools for Juvenile Delinquents. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 89 pp. 25¢. A report on a study of policies and operations of public state training schools in the United States.

SPORN, PHILIP. *The Well-Integrated Man.* New York: The author, 30 Church Street. 1956. 16 pp. Copy of a commencement address delivered at Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia, by Mr. Sporn, president of the American Gas and Electric Company, on the subject of the present and prospective shortage of engineers and scientists in the United States, and what we may look forward to as our society becomes increasingly specialized in the area of these technological subjects.

STATE OF NEW JERSEY DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. *Teacher Supply and Demand, 1955-56.* Trenton 25: Bureau of Research, the Department. 1956. 28 pp. Briefly traces the development of the teacher shortage from the beginning of World War II, estimates probable future demands, and describes some of the steps being taken in order to supply the needed teachers. Also contains a detailed analysis of teacher supply and demand for the current year.

Stay in School. (United States Navy Recruiting Service.) Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. 1956. 32 pp. An attractively illustrated booklet pointing out the advantages of remaining in high school through graduation, whether one plans to follow a military or civilian career. The long-span versus the short-span viewpoint is discussed, stressing the many advantages open in later life to those who have pursued the former philosophy.

STROM, I. M. *Teaching Load of Teachers of English in Indiana.* Bloomington: Indiana University Bookstore. 1956. 62 pp. \$1. A bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, published by the University's Division of Research and Field Services. Study attempts to make a valid and reliable survey of the teaching load of teachers of English in Indiana.

SWANN, D. L. *The Crier Calls.* New York 10: Friendship Press. 1956. 15 pp. \$1.25 for set of 10. A play utilizing straight drama, verse reading, and pantomime to interpret the struggle of depressed peoples for justice and fulfillment. Play can be staged simply and with a minimum of rehearsal. Particularly suitable for production by high-school and college students in churches and schools, and before any group concerned with current history.

TAYLOR, J. L. *The Secondary-School Plant.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 68 pp. 45¢. An aid to planners and designers of secondary-school plants; emphasizes the importance of studying the characteristics of adolescents and their imperative needs and of making a brief survey of curriculum developments and trends in secondary education to determine implications for the new school plant.

Teacher Exchange Opportunities and Summer Seminars for American Elementary, Secondary, and Junior College Teachers Under the International Educational Exchange Program. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of International Education. 1956. 30 pp. Explains the 1957-58 teacher exchange program. Helpful to those who are interested in teaching abroad.

Teacher Opinion on Pupil Behavior, 1955-56. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division of the NEA. 1956. 107 pp. Represents an analysis of results obtained from a survey of 10,000 representative classroom teachers asked to give their

opinions on the behavior pattern of the youth of today. The findings are both good and bad.

Teaching by Closed-Circuit Television. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1956. 77 pp. \$1. Report of a conference sponsored jointly by the Committee on Television of the American Council on Education and the State University of Iowa, February 26-28, 1956.

Time Off for Voting—Under State Law. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards. 1956. 18 pp. Briefs of state laws permitting employees to take time off to vote, also includes a list of states that permit absentee voting by mail.

TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH, and VIRGINIA ROE. *Selected References to the Junior High School.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1956. 11 pp. 10¢. A selected list of books and magazine articles about the junior high school published between 1950 and 1956.

TRAINING OFFICERS CONFERENCE. *Recent Developments in Research Applicable to Training.* District Heights, Maryland: Secretary-Treasurer John P. Everle, 7901 Gateway Boulevard. 1956. 46 pp. Contains a report on proceedings of the one-day institute of the Conference held March 23, 1956, at the Inter-Departmental auditorium, Washington, D. C. Four discussions held at the institute are summarized. These discussions involved four psychologists making valuable contributions in fields related to training, and the leading training officers of the Washington, D. C., area. The summaries of the four discussions deal with recent research developments bearing on the training of employees. They bring out facts and points of view which should prove helpful to operating officials and training officers, and bring to their attention various significant developments in the areas of problem-solving, motivation, performance, measurement, and "human engineering."

Training Specialists Directory. District Heights, Maryland: Secretary-Treasurer John P. Everle, 7901 Gateway Blvd. 1956. 64 pp. A publication of the Training Officer's Conference of 1956, issued in co-operation with The George Washington University. Intended to serve as a ready reference of experts in the various training fields who are available to give sound professional advice in specialized phases of employee training. Specialization areas include administration of employee development programs; administrative, executive, and management training; clerical skills and communication training; professional and scientific development; special training programs; training methods, materials, devices, and equipment. Names organizations of interest to training specialists.

Training Your Air Navy. Pensacola, Florida: Naval Air Training Command, U. S. Naval Air Station. 1956. 48 pp. A booklet compiled to assist those individuals who have the desire to understand better the many functions of the Naval Air Training Command. Pictorial and descriptive.

TYLER, H. T. *Report of the Study of Work Experience Programs in California High Schools and Junior Colleges.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1956. 147 pp. Reports results of survey undertaken to learn the extent and variety of work experience programs currently in operation in California's public high schools and junior colleges. Problems common to work experience programs of all types are identified and solutions suggested. The information will assist administrators and teachers to establish and

maintain successful, practical, and useful programs of work experience education.

UNITED NATIONS. *UNKRA in Action*. New York: The United National Korean Reconstruction Agency. 1956. 32 pp. 30¢. A well-illustrated and informative booklet outlining the conditions extant in Korea at the conclusion of the Korean conflict and the steps taken by UNKRA to relieve the myriad hardships.

U. S. ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION. *Major Activities in the Atomic Energy Programs*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 260 pp. \$1.25. Reports on such matters as the organization and principal staff of the Commission, its members of Committees, major research and development installations, civilian, military, and international tie-in with the program and information services.

UNITED STATES COUNCIL OF THE INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. *National Security and International Trade*. New York 17: The Council, 103 Park Avenue. 1956. 32 pp. 30¢. A discussion of the relationships between foreign economic policy and national security as reported by the Council's Committee on Commercial Policy. Also a comparison of the effect on national security of the alternative policies of exposing essential industries to competition or protecting them by restricting imports. Study criticizes the limitation of imports as a means of maintaining defense industries.

U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION. *Course Offerings in Guidance and Student Personnel Work—Summer 1956 and Academic year 1956-57*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 102 pp. 55¢. Contains material collected through a questionnaire sent to the nation's 1,054 four-year colleges and universities. Findings are compiled from information sent by the 847 who responded. Directory covers three main areas in list form: institutions offering graduate courses in guidance and student personnel course offerings in each under-graduate institution reporting; and the guidance workshops, conferences and institutes scheduled for 1956-57. Also available from the same source are the following publications: *Current Expenditures Per Pupil in Public School Systems: Small and Medium Sized Cities, 1954-55*. (1956. 34 pp. 30¢.) Presents data on pupil expenditures in 270 public school systems, with urban population of 2,500 to 25,000. Circular prepared primarily for distribution to school business officials and budget officers. Also available is similar report, for same period, on large-city (over 25,000 population) public school systems. Also available from the U. S. Office of Education are:

National Leadership Development Conference in Trade and Industrial Education. 1956. 118 pp. 60¢. Report covers the 1955 conference on matters concerning the philosophies, problems, goals, and plans for vocational education. Emphasis is placed on the ramifications and potentialities of a leadership development program on a continuing basis among trade and industrial educators in co-operation with management and personnel in the field.

Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools. 1956. 24 pp. 15¢. Reports results of a survey made to get information on public high-school science and mathematics course enrollments, revealing specific data on number and type of schools offering these courses. Contains statistical data on percentage of enrollment by region, as well as total pupil enrollment in these courses, in various types of high schools—four-year, six-year, etc.

Progress of Public Education in the United States of America. 1956. 28 pp. Includes sections on educational administration and organization, study plans, curricular, and methods, teaching staffs, auxiliary services, and international education.

Radio and Television Bibliography. 1956. 46 pp. 25¢. Revision of a bibliography issued periodically containing reference sources on material devoted to the historical, philosophical, and sociological aspects of the media as well as those which deal with vocational training for careers in radio and television. A limited number of technical books of a general nature are also included for teachers, administrators, and students.

Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education. 1956. 89 pp. 35¢. An annotated bibliography of studies in agricultural education with classified subject index. This is a joint project of the Agricultural Education Branch of the Office of Education and of the American Vocational Association.

Teachers of Children Who are Deaf. 1956. 87 pp. 35¢. One of a series of publications on the general subject of qualification and preparation of teachers of exceptional children. Includes findings on competencies needed by teachers of children who are deaf; opinions on the proficiency of recently prepared teachers of the deaf; education and experiences necessary for acquiring competence; and recommended areas of planning and research.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR. *Job Guide for Young Workers . . . 1956-57 Edition.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 67 pp. 40¢. Based primarily on job materials compiled in the Bureau of Employment Security, with the assistance of numerous agencies and departments engaged in work in the employment field. Contains descriptions of 110 entry occupations frequently held by young people after completion of their high-school education, outlines suggestions for job information sources and job outlook prospects.

UNITED STATES NAVY DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF NAVAL PERSONNEL. *Regulations Governing the Admission of Candidates into the United States Naval Academy As Midshipmen and Sample Examination Questions, January, 1956.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 69 pp. A pamphlet published annually for the use of those wishing to enter the Naval Academy.

We Are Not Delinquents. Philadelphia: Sayre Junior High School, Robert W. Clark, Principal. 1956. 36 pp. A pictorial presentation of constructive activities of the pupils of the Sayre Junior High School, one of Philadelphia's 28 junior high schools.

THE WESTERN NEW YORK SCHOOL STUDY COUNCIL. *Teachers and the Reading Problem.* Buffalo 14: The University of Buffalo. 1955. 73 pp. A report by the Reading Committee of the Council covering case study reports of common reading problems, an analysis of replies to a comprehensive check-list of reading instructional practices circulated among principals and supervisors of all schools—elementary through high school, and a general discussion of the problem from the administrative viewpoint. The Committee reports its conclusions and recommendations based on data interpretation and analysis.

Where Today Meets Tomorrow. Detroit: General Motors, Public Relations Staff. 1956. 34 pp. (14" x 10 1/2"). A beautiful booklet, in color, showing and describing areas of endeavor—research, styling, engineering, manufacturing development, service, and new horizons.

THE WYOMING SCHOOL STUDY COUNCIL. *English Teaching Today.* Laramie: University of Wyoming. 1956. 160 pp. Discusses weaknesses in the field of the teaching of English in high schools with suggestions offered for their improvement.

Your Career As an Engineer in Aviation. New York 21: Institute of the Aeronautical Sciences, Inc., 2 E. 64th Street. 1956. 24 pp. Free. Aimed at those students who show an interest in engineering and have demonstrated their ability in requisite subjects. Tells what to expect in an engineering career in aviation and how to prepare for it.

News Notes

PRIVATE SCHOOL BUS OPERATION DEEMED MORE EFFICIENT, CHEAPER THAN PUBLIC—Private operation of school buses is more efficient and economical than public ownership, states a New York state school bus operator in an article in *Bus Transportation*, McGraw-Hill publication.

Since the private contractor owns his own equipment, he is responsible for its maintenance and operation, while schools which operate their own buses saddle the school official with the additional burden of supervising bus operation, Clarence Geiger, president, New York State School Bus Operators' Association, declared. "School administrators are paid to produce education, not transportation. When they are forced out of their own field into another, something must suffer."

Other advantages of private bus operation cited by Mr. Geiger are: (1) Transportation costs are known at the start of the school year, while true costs of public operation are often lost in bookkeeping; (2) High standards and tight control are easier with private operation since service is the most important thing the owner-operator has to offer.

Refuting some of the superior merits attributed to public operation, Mr. Geiger asserted that the flexibility claimed for the publicly-owned bus is just as true of the operator under contract where bus route changes are part of the every day work. On the question of which is safer, he pointed out that the buses of both systems are inspected periodically in New York state by motor inspectors of the Public Service Commission, and added that since the private contractor's livelihood is tied up in his buses, he cannot afford to let them deteriorate.

The most commonly claimed "advantage" of public operation—lower cost—is unreliable since the average school administrator has difficulty in determining what his total transportation costs actually are, Mr. Geiger believes. Instead of being charged to transportation, the cost of buses may be charged to bonded indebtedness; interest on bonds may be charged to interest; insurance costs may be charged to the insurance account. On the other hand, the private operator not only figures his costs precisely, but pays taxes which benefit the schools as well.

Indicating the economy of private bus operation, Mr. Geiger pointed out, is the fact that some school administrators realize they can buy the services of the private contractor cheaper than their own. Some districts in Long Island, for example, have started to contract for private equipment rather than purchase additional buses for their publicly-owned systems. "I can see no more justification in district ownership than I can see in an attempt on the part of districts to print their own text books, or produce their own electricity, or design their own schools, or build their own buildings . . . especially when it would cost them more money, and they'd get a lower-quality product," he concludes.

FOREIGN TEACHER EXCHANGE PROGRAM—More than 500 United States and foreign teachers will participate in the 1956-57 program of exchange of foreign teaching or seminar study arranged by the U. S. Office of Education. One hundred American teachers who are exchanging teaching jobs with 100 teachers of the United Kingdom departed on August 4 for Great Britain. The British teachers arrived in the United States August 14 aboard the Queen Elizabeth. Another 56 American teachers are interchanging with an equal number of teachers from Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, New Zealand, and Norway. Teachers from these countries arrived during the period of August 11-20. In addition, 103 U. S. teachers, in August and early September, went to other countries to teach on one-way assignments. Sixteen foreign teachers are in American classrooms under the same arrangement.

Seventy-one U. S. teachers attended summer seminars in France, Germany, and Italy.

American teachers on one-way teaching assignments are spending the year in Austria, Burma, Cambodia, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, India, Indonesia, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Morocco, The Netherlands, Syria, Thailand, Turkey, and the Colonial Areas of the United Kingdom.

Countries sending teachers to the United States on one-way teaching assignments during 1956-57 are Australia, Austria, Denmark, Germany, Italy, and Norway.

"This program of teacher interchange between our nation and many countries of the world represents an important aid to achieving international understanding through education," Commissioner Brownell said. "It is an action program, initiated in 1946, which focuses upon goals recently outlined by President Eisenhower for 'exchange of knowledge and factual information between peoples . . . all trying to develop the necessary understanding that every international problem is in reality a human one.'"

The program of teacher exchange and seminar study is arranged by the Office of Education as part of the United States International Educational Exchange Program of the Department of State. National organizations with a major interest in education are represented on a National Advisory Committee for the Exchange of Teachers.

OUR YOUTH POPULATION—The number of youth in the United States, 14-17 years of age, as of October 1955, is 9.2 million—an increase of some 400,000 over 1953, according to recent statistics from the U. S. Bureau of Labor Standards. This increase is part of the upward trend in youth population which reflects the upsurge in the birth rate beginning in the early '40's. School enrollments of youth in the same age bracket have increased by

almost a half million between 1953 and 1955. Most of the gain has been among the 16-17 year-old youth. The proportion enrolled in school in this age group rose from 75% in 1953 to 77% in 1955, while the proportion of 14 and 15 year-olds enrolled in school remained at 96%.

SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS IN OUR SECONDARY SCHOOLS—

Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools by Kenneth E. Brown is a recent U.S. Office of Education Pamphlet. (24 pp. Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C. 15 cents.) The present shortage of scientifically and mathematically trained personnel in the United States has focused attention on the potential supply of personnel and the scientific and mathematical education available in the public schools of the nation. The actual facts of the situation have often been blurred. For example, you might hear—"25 per cent of the public high schools in the United States offer neither chemistry nor physics." The statement is true, and yet it doesn't accurately convey the total picture of the availability of study in chemistry and physics to high-school students. One might expect that if 25 per cent of the schools do not offer chemistry or physics, 25 per cent of our students are not able to take these courses. Actually, this is not the case. Only 5.8 per cent, not 25 per cent, of all twelfth-grade students (chemistry and physics are normally offered in the twelfth grade) are enrolled in those schools which do not offer these courses. This latter information clarifies the issue considerably.

It is just this kind of information that *Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools* presents in this analysis of the actual situation in the areas of science and mathematics for the fall of 1954. The study places emphasis on ratios of those enrolled in these courses to those who could be enrolled in them. This enables the reader to comprehend accurately both the potential and actual enrollments, so that he may evaluate the utilization of our personnel and intellectual resources. Data is presented in numerical and graphic charts which clearly show the number and type of public high schools that offer scientific and mathematics courses and the number of students enrolled in these courses. Included in the data are charts of statistics by geographic area, tables on the ratios of boys and girls in the courses, and figures comparing enrollments from 1890 to 1954-55.

ACCREDITED CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS—Twenty-five correspondence schools have just been accredited by the National Home Study Council, the accrediting association for private home study schools, it was announced by Dr. Homer Kempfer, Executive Secretary of the Council. In recent months an accrediting commission of prominent educators thoroughly inspected all private home study schools which applied. Of the total group scattered throughout the nation, twenty-five schools were found to meet the rigid standards required for accreditation. Nearly 700,000 people enroll in private correspondence schools annually, according to Dr. Kempfer. He pointed out that this is more than the number of freshmen enrolling in all colleges and universities of the country. "With so many people enrolling, it is highly important for the public to know which schools are worthy of confidence," said Dr. Kempfer. "It is heartening to realize that over fifty per cent of the enrollment is in accredited schools."

To be accredited by the National Home Study Council, a school must offer educationally sound and up-to-date courses, have a competent faculty, admit only qualified students, advertise truthfully, keep its tuition charges reasonable, show a good record of ethical relationships with students, and be financially

sound. The National Home Study Council has been the standard-setting agency for private home study schools for thirty years. For further information about correspondence schools which meet high standards, people may inquire for the *Home Study Blue Book* at public libraries or of high-school guidance counselors. A list of accredited schools is available without charge from the National Home Study Council, 1420 New York Avenue, N. W., Washington 5, D. C.

HOW FARES FREEDOM IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL?—The following excerpts have been taken from the J. Richard Street Lecture, 1956, by Dr. Paul M. Halverson. The Street Lecture, an annual event, is named for the late Dr. J. Richard Street, who was instrumental in the founding of the original Teachers College at Syracuse University in 1906. Dr. Street was dean of that first teacher-training unit, which later expanded into the present all-University School of Education. The Lectureship was endowed in 1941 by his son Dr. W. Walter Street, an alumnus of the university and a practicing physician in the city of Syracuse. Each year since that time, a member of the School of Education faculty delivers the Street Lecture.

"We have only dabbled in freedom at the secondary level of education. In experimenting with more or less freedom, we have found that, like a little learning, a little freedom is a dangerous thing. . . ."

"There has been added a vast network of administrative and supervisory decrees, mandates, and regulations which hedge in the classroom teacher and learners on all sides, preventing autonomous group planning and action for significant learning experiences."

"Particularly in the area of curriculum development, teachers are not yet by nature of their preparation completely adequate for the task. But given freedom, most teachers would go far beyond the expectations of those who feel the need of control, inspection, and supervision by authoritarian means."

"But ultimately we are aiming at the development of self-reliant individuals who are competent in sensing and defining problems and, subsequently, after reflection in testing by action their choices of solutions to these problems. Although school experiences do not provide equally well this problem solving approach to learning, we do not capitalize sufficiently on the areas where problem solving is possible. And of course, in more cases than not, proponents of the subject field curriculum pose the problems, spoonfeed the solutions, and evaluate outcomes in non-behavior terms."

"Preparation for this kind of adult responsibility should receive high priority in the high school. This will come only when we create the setting for problem solving in real or vicarious situations and give students practice in problem solving behavior."

"We can never desist in our efforts to give greater local autonomy to school systems for the educational program and, ultimately, to the classroom teachers."

"Ultimately then, the chances of freedom being granted and used in curriculum development at the high-school level depend on the extent teachers can and will be free persons themselves."

"Educators and lay public alike are examining more closely the educative aspects of extracurricular activities. When these are established, equal opportunity for all to participate is urged. The most notable exception is found in an extra-legal development on the extracurricular scene. I refer to that contradictory social phenomenon in our democratic schools—the high-school fraternity

and sorority. In most instances their secrets, membership qualifications, and political connivings in school life run counter to the best interests of the student body as a whole, resulting in cleavages and lowered student morale."

"How can the high school assist adolescents in the development of behavior which is both personally satisfying and socially acceptable?" Dr. Halverson made three suggestions:

"First, if discipline is control behavior, then we can expect the best learning of this behavior if the learner sees the purpose behind it."

"The second principle is one which suggests flexibility in approach to student control. The challenge to teacher, counselor, administrator in each case of inappropriate behavior is to get at its causes. . . . But in the secondary school, particularly, there is more attention paid to control behavior symptoms and less to treatment of underlying causes."

"The third principle suggests the necessity of discipline which is increasingly self-imposed. My only suggestion is that we give more freedom, not less, as youths get older in our schools."

"Show me a high school where it is difficult to see the principal or where pupils do not find teachers in their room frequently after school hours and I will predict that human relations are on an impersonal, noncommunicative basis."

"If 'freedom is the base of operation for program development,' is the framework within which control behavior is developed and is the pervading spirit of a professional staff, then the American public high school is progressive; that is, moving forward toward the ideals and goals of the society which supports it."

CLASSROOM AIDS—School personnel have for a long time been familiar with the value in education of the *National Geographic Magazine*, Washington 6, D. C. Some, however, may not know that the National Geographic Society also publishes a weekly school publication specifically designed for classroom use. *Geographic Bulletins*, as they are called, are surprisingly low-priced—2½ cents or less a copy—because the Society underwrites most of the cost as a useful service to education.

The *Bulletins* come ready for classroom use in social studies, geography, general science, history—no cutting, pasting, or summarizing necessary; the articles are concise, readable, interesting, and illustrated with over 400 photographs, charts, and maps annually. These *Bulletins* have the same high standards of accuracy as the *National Geographic Magazine*—as well as the same top-quality paper, printing, and photography. There will be 150 interesting, timely articles in rich variety in these weekly *Bulletins* in 1956-57. Students will ride with the gauchos of Uruguay . . . tap rubber in Liberia . . . peer at Mars as it sweeps close to earth and follow the earth satellite into space . . . probe the approaching doom of the condor and the kookaburra . . . stroll the campuses of Heidelberg and the Sorbonne . . . cheer at the Olympics in Melbourne. These are only a few of the coming year's illustrated articles—an expert blend of science, news, nature, and humanized geography. Schools may take advantage of the new budget-saving 3-year plan, only \$2 for three school years (90 issues) of *Geographic Bulletins* or try them for one year at the annual price of 75 cents.

NEW FILM ON HEART AND CIRCULATION—Coronet has just released a new film, *The Human Body: Circulatory System*. Animation, cine-

fluorography, drawings, microscopy, and closeups of live organs are all ingeniously used to help high-school students in science gain a better understanding of the human circulatory system. The color version of the film will be extremely useful in the classroom because of its clear rendition of the various elements and processes under study. To provide complete coverage of this visually important subject, the film has a running time of 14 minutes.

Another new Coronet release of particular interest to vocational counselors and classes in industrial arts is *Careers in the Building Trades* (basic skills). Students in grades 7-12 who may be considering working in these areas will find the film an excellent picture of the different kinds of work. The film further stresses that the best preparation for such a career is continued school study in all subject areas. For further information write to Coronet Films, 54 E. South Water St., Chicago 1, Illinois.

PUBLIC SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION—The Congress, by authorizing the extension of P.L. 815 for a two-year period ending June 1958, has once more affirmed Federal government acceptance of responsibility to help build schools in areas where Federal activities have placed a burden on local schools and have reduced local tax potential. Under this program, initiated in 1950, the Federal government has borne a part of the cost of public school construction in school districts which have experienced rapid increases in enrollment because of an influx of families identified with Federal property or activities. A major reason for the latest two-year extension is the substantial program of family housing for military personnel enacted by the 84th Congress. Some 150,000 family housing units will be built on military bases during the next two or three years and the families occupying these units will create a demand for additional classroom space in local schools.

The special program for construction aid to needy districts which educate large numbers of pupils residing on Federal property (principally Indian lands) was also extended in the two-year extension of P.L. 815. The appropriation authorization for these projects was raised from \$20 million to \$40 million.

The Congress has appropriated a total of \$105.5 million to initiate the extended program of school construction assistance. Funds appropriated by the Congress since 1950 for this school construction program total \$727,400,000. Together with local funds added to the federally aided projects, it is estimated that schools constructed with these funds will house some 950,000 pupils in some 4,000 new buildings or additions located in about 1,500 communities and on military bases throughout the nation, Hawaii, Alaska, and Puerto Rico.

Another part of the legislative program adopted by the Congress was the amendment and further extension of P.L. 874 which provides Federal operating assistance to schools in federally affected areas. The amendments liberalize the formula for computing entitlements of local school districts and the program is extended through fiscal year 1958. Congress added \$34,050,000 to its previous appropriation of \$79 million to finance maintenance and operation payments in fiscal year 1957. Some 3,000 local school districts participate in this program.

DRIVER EDUCATION—General Motors has contributed more than \$460,000 in support of driver education in the nation's schools for the 1955-56 school year, according to an announcement by General Motors president, Harlow H. Curtice. Under its driver training assistance plan, the corporation awards auto dealers \$125 for each new automobile loaned to schools for driver training.

This allowance helps dealers offset vehicle maintenance and reconditioning costs.

"The automobile is very much a part of American youth. In a society that depends most extensively on motor vehicles, it is important that today's youth begin early to learn the fundamentals of driving safely and efficiently. . . . Driver education now is an essential segment of the secondary-school curriculum and fulfills an important and growing need. In addition to the immediate benefits gained by teaching students safe driving techniques and instilling driver responsibility in classrooms, we find that driver education has continuing and far-reaching effects," he said. Surveys illustrate that boys and girls with authorized driver education in high schools possess substantially better safety records than those who do not receive instruction. According to AAA figures published by the National Commission on Safety Education, in Cleveland, trained high-school boys have half as many accidents as untrained youths. And an AAA three-year study conducted by the Pennsylvania State Police showed that accidents involving youth were cut in half and arrests decreased to a third as a result of driver education.

JOB OPPORTUNITIES IN BEAUTY SERVICE—Women were urged today to take another look at the field of beauty culture, not as customers but as potential workers. This advice of the U.S. Department of Labor's Women's Bureau is given in a new publication, *Employment Opportunities for Women in Beauty Service*. Jobs in beauty service offer many advantages, says Mrs. Alice K. Leopold, Assistant to the Secretary of Labor for Women's Affairs. Among them is the relatively short-term and inexpensive training, available at vocational high schools as well as at private schools. This also is a type of work that can be practiced in almost any locality, on a part-time as well as a full-time basis. Moreover, women can resume this work after an absence from the labor market. Further, age is not a particular barrier and, in fact, may be an advantage to mature women with the desire and sufficient business acumen to establish their own businesses.

Now an extensive and important industry, beauty service ranks among the first 14 occupations for women. It employed about 190,000 women at the time of the decennial census. The present job outlook is promising and indications are that it will continue to be so. Among customers of the beauty business are large numbers of the nation's 22 million women workers. The new report can be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C. The price is 25 cents.

ECONOMIC EDUCATION SERVICE—The American Economic Association has established a standing Committee on Economic Education. The functions of the Committee are *inter alia* (1) to serve as a focal point within the Association for the interests of members professionally concerned with economics in the schools and in adult and general education; stimulate and encourage active, serious professional work in economic education; and encourage the preparation of journal articles and arrange for sessions on economic education at the annual meetings of the Association; and (2) to serve as a point of contact within the Association for persons, organizations, and institutions outside the Association who are professionally concerned with economic education; symbolize the concern of the Association and its members with the problems of those directly on the firing line; keep open the channels between teachers in the schools and economists, help to clear up misunder-

standings; and assist in making available the services of economists where they can be of help.

The new standing Committee on Economic Education is made up of Clark Bloom (State University of Iowa), Floyd Bond (Pomona College), and the three members of the *ad hoc* committee that prepared the report—Archibald McIsaac (Syracuse University), Paul Strayer (Princeton University) and Ben Lewis (Oberlin College), chairman.

CHILDREN'S BOOK WEEK—"It's Always Book Time" is the theme for the 38th celebration of Children's Book Week, November 25—December 1. Year after year, Book Week focuses attention on the perennial pleasure and wealth of books for children, and book fairs in small and large cities, and brings thousands of boys and girls and books together. This year the major fairs extend from Washington to Honolulu.

The timeless and enchanted landscape painted by Leonard Weisgard for the 1956 Book Week poster is certain to be one of the most memorable since Book Week began. Mr. Weisgard, distinguished illustrator and author of children's books, was the 1947 winner of the Caldecott medal. In six colors, 17 x 22 inches, the poster will be available at 35 cents, with reductions on quantity orders. Full-color bookmarks reproducing the Book Week poster will also be available, in quantities of 500 for \$2.50 with reductions on quantity orders.

As in previous years, well known children's book illustrators, Edward Ardizzone, Nicolas Mordvinoff (1952 Caldecott winner), and Beth and Joe Krush, have designed Book Week streamers to appeal to the three age-groups of reading children. In two colors, they measure 22½ x 6 inches and cost 30 cents for a set of 3, with reductions on quantity orders.

Other Book Week materials will include two new publications, *How To Run a Book Fair* by Dorothy L. McFadden, director of *The New York Times* "Reading is Fun" Exhibit, (60¢ each), and *How a Book is Made* by Ray Freiman, head of the Production Department at Random House, (\$2 each). Also new this year is the *Book Puzzle Pad*, a literary fill-in puzzle, designed to amuse and intrigue junior high-school pupils, by Dr. Eugene Maleska, well known for his crossword and other puzzles. These and other materials are available from the Children's Book Council, 50 West 53rd Street, New York 19. Write for free descriptive *1956 Manual of Book Week Aids*.

OUTSTANDING EDUCATIONAL BOOKS—Problems faced by educators in 1956 are much the same as those of 1926, if one can judge by lists of "Outstanding Educational Books" compiled annually since 1926 by the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore, Maryland. Administration, curriculum, psychology, and teaching methods account for most of the titles in both the 1926 and the 1956 lists. Two new subjects have appeared in recent years, however, according to the compilers. They are academic freedom and school-community relations. Copies of the latest edition of "Outstanding Educational Books" are available at five cents each (send cash) from the Publications Department, Enoch Pratt Free Library, 400 Cathedral Street, Baltimore 1, Maryland.

NEED FOR SCIENTISTS AND ENGINEERS—The problem of supplying the country with much needed scientific talent should be tackled at the junior and senior-high-school levels, according to Dr. Paul F. Brandwein, educator and science editor. He stated at the General Motors' Summer Program for high-school science teachers that difficult problems lie ahead for industry, government, and education because modern technology demands more scientists

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and engineers, and that "It will be up to the schools and students of today to supply the scientific leadership of tomorrow." He added that the years ahead "are also years of challenge and opportunity for our young people—our future scientists." His talk was given before twenty-one high-school science and mathematics teachers from Michigan, Ohio, and Indiana who were employed on summer jobs in thirteen General Motors divisions, giving them first-hand knowledge of industrial application of science. They worked on jobs directly related to the subjects they teach—mathematics, chemistry, and physics.

NORTH CAROLINA'S EFFORT TO SUPPORT PUBLIC SCHOOLS—

Although North Carolina's ability measured by per capita income ranks low among the states, her effort to support a public school system is high when compared to other states. This effort is all the more outstanding when consideration is given to the educational "load" that is borne by this state as measured by the ratio of pupils to population and to the instructional staff employed.

Statistical facts showing comparisons of the states in nine aspects of public education are presented below. These figures are for the latest years available from reliable sources, largely the U.S. Office of Education and the White House Conference Report. These figures show that North Carolina:

RANKS 43rd in per capita income for 1954—\$1,190. The national average is \$1,770.

RANKS 7th in percentage of income payments to individuals used for public schools, 1953-54—3.77%. Average for the nation, 2.72%.

RANKS 44th in income per child, 5-17 years, 1953—\$4,202. National average, \$7,814.

RANKS 5th in percentage of school revenue from state sources, 1953-54—74%. National average, 41%.

RANKS 40th in current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance, 1952—\$175.62. National average, \$244.24.

RANKS 22nd in average annual salary per member of instructional staff (teachers, principals, supervisors) 1952—\$3,282. National average, \$3,981. (Note: This year such employees were paid an increase applicable to the preceding year. Actually, therefore, the state ranks 31st in this respect with an average salary of \$3,007.

RANKS 8th in ratio of pupils to population, 1952—22.0%. National average, 17.3%.

RANKS 9th in ratio of average daily attendance to enrollment, 1951-52—89.3%. National average, 87.6%.

RANKS 45th in ratio of instructional staff members to average daily attendance, 1951-52—26.6 pupils. National average, 23.0 pupils.

In view of the fact that statistics from the various states are subject to some variations, these ranks should not be considered as absolute. They may be considered as indicative, however.—*State School Facts*, published monthly by the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction.

ELIMINATING THE HONOR ROLL—The Spring, 1956, issue of *The Bulletin of the Wisconsin Association of Secondary-School Principals* contains an interesting article on the honor roll by C. A. Schacht, Superintendent of the Elkhorn High School. In this article, he states that the scholastic honor roll released at the end of each grading period has been eliminated in the Elkhorn High School. "Our philosophy at Elkhorn is to build a feeling of adequacy, a

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feeling of security, and a feeling of well being within every student if he will work up to his capacity in every way. Although scholastic grades are an important factor in future success, it is a recognized fact, proven by research and countless daily examples of high-school graduates, that what it takes to succeed in life is similar to what it takes to achieve in co-curricular activities. Therefore, we feel that, if there is to be an honor roll at the end of each grading period, it should, in addition to naming students with good grades, list pupils excelling in extracurricular activities; students who are tops in personality and character, growth, co-operation, dependability, good-fellowship; and students who rate "A" in leadership, the ability to think, the willingness to work, and similar qualities which are all objectives of the curriculum and barometers of future success and good citizenship."

The school does have a scholastic honor roll, however, which is released at the end of the students' high-school career. Graduates so honored must maintain a two-point grade average over the four years of high school. Such graduates are given special recognition at the Senior Honors Convocation when all awards for outstanding merit are presented. The program is held on Friday afternoon, the week previous to graduation, and parents and interested friends are invited to attend. Superintendent Schacht states that "No incentive has been lost by the students to excel academically. The resulting broader sense of values has given perspective and direction to each student, enabling him, regardless of potential, to feel adequate, to be esteemed, and to have self-esteem. The disappearance of publicly announcing scholastic achievement levels at various intervals has had a wholesome effect on our school climate."

CHECKLIST ON HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONS—The May-June, 1956, issue of the New York City Board of Education publication, *Curriculum and Materials*, contains a checklist on Home-School Relations. Following is a reprint of the nineteen items included in this checklist:

1. Does your school have an active parents' or parent-teachers' association?
2. Does this association work in harmony with the school, understanding and respecting its own role as well as the school's role in dealing with common problems?
3. Do the staff members of your school participate in meetings with parents or community groups?
4. Does your school help organize study and discussion meetings for parents and community groups?
5. Do the study and discussion groups consider such topics as parent-child relations, family relations, needs and interests of children and youth, and present-day educational programs?
6. Do parents visit the school during its regular sessions?
7. Do children invite parents to special programs?
8. Are parents invited to attend some special school function at least once a year?
9. Do parents, of their own accord, come to the school to share or to help in some aspects of the work of the school?
10. Has your school studied and evaluated the purpose and techniques of effective reporting to parents?
11. Is a conference held with the parents of each new entrant to the school?
12. Is an orientation program provided for new pupils?
13. At least once a year, do teachers and parents join in a common project,

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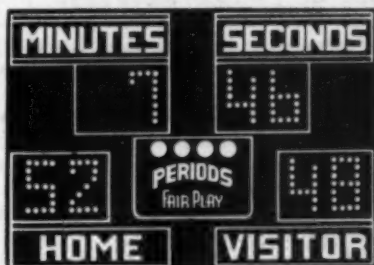
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such as planning summer activities for children or improving some community program?

14. Have parents and other interested citizens been encouraged to participate to some extent in formulating school objectives and programs?

15. Do parents accompany classes on trips, or assist in running social activities for children?

16. Does your school send a bulletin or report to parents once or twice a year describing some phase of the school program?

17. Does your school maintain close liaison with all community agencies that can help children?

18. Does the curriculum of your school provide for study of and participation in community affairs?

19. Are the facilities of the school utilized by community groups for meetings or recreational activities?

COLLEGE ENROLLMENT TRENDS—The July 1956, issue of *The Educational Record*, published by the American Council on Education, contains an article entitled "Some Facts on College Enrollment Trends in the Past Fifteen Years" (pp. 189-191) by Russell I. Thackrey. Some of the facts summarized in this article are as follow: (1) Between the fall of 1939 and the fall of 1954 enrollments in higher education increased 82.2 per cent (from 1,372,061 to 2,499,750). This is one of the most remarkable, and least remarked upon, phenomena in higher education, since the college-age population was about 500,000 less in 1954 than in 1939. (2) Enrollments in all public institutions increased 90.2 per cent during the fifteen-year period; enrollment in all private institutions increased 73 per cent in the same period of time. (3) Enrollments in degree-granting public institutions increased 80.9 per cent during the fifteen-year period while enrollment in private institutions increased 76.3 per cent in this same period. (4) Enrollments in non-degree-granting public institutions increased 144.4 per cent during the fifteen-year period while enrollment in private non-degree-granting institutions increased 25.7 per cent.

COLLEGE DROPOUTS—The Summer, 1956, issue of the *College and University*, a publication of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, contains an interesting article entitled "Study of College Student Retention and Withdrawal" by Robert E. Iffert (pp. 435-447). As a conclusion of the article, the author makes the following statement: "About 32 per cent of the approximately 1,200,000 graduates of public and private secondary schools in 1950 entered college in the fall of 1950 as full-time students. Another 11 per cent entered on a part-time basis. One-half of the students who graduate in the upper half of the high-school classes do not go on to college on a full-time basis and one third from the upper half do not go to college at all. . . .

"One thousand high-school graduates in the class of 1950 produced 132 college graduates in 1954 from the colleges of original registration. One thousand top-fifth high-school graduates produced 369 college graduates. The same number of top-half graduates produced 232 college graduates in regular progression while only 32 from the thousand who were in the bottom half of high-school classes graduated from the colleges of original registration in regular progression. (It should be remembered that only 144 of this last thousand entered college on a full-time basis.) In terms of national manpower deprivation, this means that during the past ten years approximately 1,500,000

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students who graduated in the upper half of their high-school classes never entered college and 2,000,000 never registered as full-time college students. About 116,000 students who graduated in the top fifth of high-school classes in the decade never attended college. This number is equal to 55 per cent of the full-time faculty of all higher educational institutions in the United States."

THE STUDY OF AMERICA'S ABLE STUDENTS—The College Entrance Examination Board has recently published a report, under the title *Encouraging Scientific Talent*, on America's able students who are lost at college. This is an interesting publication and should be read by every high-school principal. Copies of this 259-page publication are available from either the College Entrance Examination Board, c/o Educational Testing Service, P. O. Box 592, Princeton, New Jersey, or P. O. Box 27896, Los Angeles 27, California. This study leads the author to make quite a number of conclusions. Among them the following is evidence of what has been happening for many years: "There is a striking amount of economic and cultural determinism connected with college-going. There is a pressing need for more scholarships to tap some of the loss of high ability from high school to college. Today's able high-school graduate is interested more than ever before in our history in continuing his formal education. He considers higher education essential for the work he intends to do. He is alert to many of the economic opportunities which these prosperous times afford. He is sensitive to the financial incentives around him, even to the extent sometimes of giving up his major academic interest if a scholarship is involved. At the same time, he lacks sufficient high-school guidance, particularly about scholarship awards, with which to shape his college and financial plans.

"Despite the increased interest in the bachelor of arts degree, higher education is still losing up to one half of the top 30 per cent or so of the nation's high-school seniors. Each year, apparently, between 60,000 and 100,000 highly able secondary-school graduates with aptitude and interest for college fail to continue their education for financial reasons. Another group of similar size and ability lack the interest or motivation for college. This is a serious waste of intellectual resources which should not be overshadowed by the rising tide of college enrollments."

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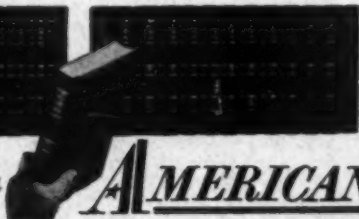
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